DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE

SCOTT AND CARR

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THE
DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE

AN ELEMENTARY STUDY OF LANGUAGE HISTORY
AND OF THE GROWTH OF OUR SPEECH
FOR USE IN SCHOOLS

BY

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PREFACE

Of the various types of material to which attention may be directed in connection with education, nothing is more readily and more constantly available than language. While its existence, like that of the mechanical devices which play so large a part in modern life, is due to an effort to meet human needs, its character and the laws of its formation and change offer the same challenge to intellectual activity as do the products of the forces of chemistry and physics. The electric motor and the various practical applications of chemistry are merely "tools" in modern life. In our educational procedure, however, they are studied not merely that pupils may know how to use them in industry, but in order to satisfy the instinctive desire for knowledge on the part of boys and girls, and to provide a broader basis for intellectual activity and satisfaction.

But little attention has been given heretofore in the courses of the elementary school and the high school to the laws which govern the development of language in general, and to the processes by which it has taken on its present forms. The elements which make up our own language and the historical facts regarding the relations of the important languages of the modern civilized world are often vaguely known or entirely unknown even to the college graduate at the end of his formal education. And yet this knowledge affords a ready appeal to the interest of the student, and its comprehension involves no special difficulty beyond that of the usual subject matter of the school course.

This book represents an endeavor to make available for high school pupils some of the fundamental facts of language development. It is not offered as a substitute for the study of a foreign language, but in the hope that its use may add

to the value of such study, and especially that it may put at the disposal of the pupil certain facts regarding the constituent elements of his own language. It includes also a brief survey of the language groups which are of most importance for our own civilization and for an understanding of the linguistic conditions which have so profoundly affected the historical developments of the past few years.

The treatment of a number of topics here given is necessarily brief, and the form of statement throughout has been influenced by a desire to meet the needs of young students rather than to present the subject matter in a manner which should be scientifically complete from every point of view. Opinions are bound to differ as to points of emphasis in such a course. It has seemed to the authors wiser to omit any detailed statements of the important laws regarding the changes of the Indo-European consonant groups as more appropriate for later study. The pupil will be better able to appreciate these more intricate problems when he has gained a larger familiarity with the actual material of foreign languages than can be expected at an early point in his course. However, teachers who wish to take up such topics as Grimm's and Verner's Laws can easily do so in connection with the chapters dealing with consonant change.

The authors wish to acknowledge their indebtedness to Professor C. H. Judd, Director of the School of Education of the University of Chicago, to whose suggestions regarding the need of a general course in language the existence of this book is in large measure due. Professor Judd has read the manuscript of the book, and the first chapter in particular embodies the results of his criticisms. Dr. E. H. Sturtevant, formerly of Columbia University, has read both the manuscript and the proofs, and the authors cannot express too fully their sense of obligation to him for his generous and scholarly help in the form of numerous corrections in matters

of comparative philology and also for his suggestions regarding the material to be included in the book. Professor T. A. Jenkins, of the University of Chicago, has kindly given the authors the benefit of his judgment on numerous points of Romance philology. President C. E. Allen, of the State Normal School of North Dakota, by his representation of the immediate need of such material for schools, has been influential in leading the authors to undertake its publication at this time. Professor George L. Marsh, of the University of Chicago, has given valuable advice regarding the organization of certain parts of the book.

The illustrations from Breasted's *Ancient Times*, which are acknowledged in the pages on which they appear, are used with the kind permission of Professor Breasted and of his publishers, Ginn and Co. For the other diagrams and illustrations the authors are indebted to Professor Calvin L. Lewis, the author of *American Speech;* and for the map on page 62 to Mr. L. P. Benezet, author of *The World War and What Was Behind It.*

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TO THE TEACHER

This book may be used as the basis for a semester course, or it may be made a part of the English work for two or three years. For those who prefer the latter procedure, it is suggested that chapters I-VII may be used in the first year, chapters VIII-XIV in the second year, and the remaining chapters in the third or fourth year.

The authors believe that better results will be secured from the use of this material if the pupil has had one or more years of Latin or French. The greater part, however, may be taken up without any previous study of a foreign language.

Useful reference books, especially for the teacher, in connection with the subject matter here given are the following:

The World War and What Was Behind It, Chapter V. L. P. Benezet: Scott, Foresman and Co., Chicago.

The Story of the Alphabet. Edward Clodd: Appleton & Co., New York.

Linguistic Change. E. H. Sturtevant: The University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

The Life and Growth of Language. W. D. Whitney: Appleton & Co., New York.

The History of Language. Henry Sweet: The Macmillan Co., New York. (Temple Primer Series.)

The English Language. L. P. Smith: Henry Holt and Co., New York. (Home Library Series.)

Modern English. G. P. Krapp: Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

The Making of English. Henry Bradley: The Macmillan Co., New York.

Words and Their Ways in English Speech. Greenough and Kittredge: Ginn and Co., Boston.

The Pronunciation of Standard English in America. G. P. Krapp: The Oxford University Press, New York.

American Speech. Calvin L. Lewis: Scott, Foresman and Co., Chicago.

An Introduction to the Study of Language. Leonard Bloomfield: Henry Holt & Co., New York.

A Concise Etymological Dictionary: W. W. Skeat: The American Book Co., New York.

TO THE PUPIL

The present form of our language, and of every other language now spoken, has come about through a long process of change, just as the present form of the mountains, hills, valleys, and plains of any region is the result of the changes which have worn away or modified earlier forms. We may study the manner in which these changes have taken place in language as well as in the surface of the earth. This book tells some of the more important facts regarding the history of language and shows the nature of some of the changes which have taken place and are still taking place.

When we study the history of the nations of the world, we find that one of the important bonds of sympathy between different peoples is often the use of a common speech or of forms of speech which are closely related. In studying the history of languages we are therefore studying one of the most important elements of the history of the world. Many of the great events of history cannot readily be understood without taking into account the facts of language which are involved.

In the study of our own language one of the most important matters we have to consider is, What is good usage? We shall be able to understand more clearly the importance of a standard of usage and the principles on which correct usage is based if we know something of the general laws of language. The attempt is sometimes made to fix laws or rules for correct English in disregard of the fact that language changes, and that the standard of correct expression cannot be made to depend entirely on the use of an earlier time. If we understand something of the principles of linguistic change, we shall be able to judge more intelligently the criticisms which are made on any particular form of expression. Further, if we understand the meaning of the elements of which

English words are made up, we are apt to speak and write with greater exactness.

Finally, in the study of foreign languages we shall sometimes be able to learn a new vocabulary more rapidly if we understand its relation to other words which we already know. Thus, one who knows Latin can learn many Spanish words with ease if he knows the general principles of the relation between Spanish and Latin.

We may gain, therefore, from a study of the principles and history of language, an added source of interest in the words which we read and hear, a clearer understanding of the history of nations, a better knowledge of our own language, and greater ease in the mastery of foreign languages.

CHAPTER I

THE ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE

Earliest Forms Unknown

It is rather difficult for us to realize that there was a time when men could not talk to one another. But language, like everything else, must have had a beginning. Just as every child must learn to talk, so the human race had to learn to talk. The beginnings of language, however, go so far back into the past that we cannot know very much about them, and it is only by studying and examining many different languages that men have formed theories as to what language was like at first.

We do not know how long ago men first began to make sounds that could properly be called spoken language. We can find traces of where men lived more than ten thousand years ago, and we know that they drew pictures and made some kinds of tools. Very probably they had a spoken language at that time, but there is no possibility of our discovering exactly what it was like.

Human Speech and the Vocal Sounds of Animals

The use of language is one of the most important respects in which human beings differ from animals. The sounds that dogs, cattle, horses, and other animals make with their voices are very different from words. The sound of a dog's barking when it is playing may be different from the sound when it is hurt or angry, but the dog does not have one set of syllables or words to express pleasure and another set to express pain or anger.

Perhaps there was a time when men were not much better off than animals now are in respect to the ability to talk.

At any rate, language must have been very different in its beginning from what it now is, and it must have been very different from the oldest specimens of language that we can find. For while these specimens go back six or seven thousand years, the human race existed for a long time before that period.

Use of Gestures

It is often possible to make known what one wants and what he is thinking about by means of gestures, without the use of words, and it may be that men talked by signs before they used spoken language. There are many gestures which are still used to express ideas and which almost everybody understands. When one shakes his head on being asked a question we understand that he means "no," just as well as if he had spoken the word. Similarly if he nods in response to a question we understand that he means "yes." But besides these two simple forms of answering a question we may express a great many other ideas by signs. Putting the forefinger to the lips when someone is talking means "keep quiet" just as clearly as if these words were spoken aloud. Holding up both hands means "I surrender." Shrugging the shoulders and shaking the head often means "I don't know."

More than a hundred gestures have been noted which school boys and school girls sometimes use to express ideas. Perhaps a few of these would not be understood unless they had been explained, or unless it had been previously arranged that they should be used with a special meaning. Thus a boy will sometimes hold up one hand with the first two fingers spread apart in a V-shape to ask another boy to go swimming. This sign, which is used rather widely among boys, would not be understood without explanation. But beckoning with the hand means "come here" without any explanation, and in the same way making the motion of whittling with one

forefinger on the other and then holding out the hand would be readily understood by any intelligent boy or girl to mean "give me a knife."

The umpire at a baseball game indicates the strikes by holding up as many fingers of one hand as are required to show the number, and the balls by holding up in the same way the fingers of the other hand. Sometimes the umpire or referee of a football game will signal to the newspaper reporters the plays that are made, by signs which have been agreed upon.

The traffic policeman in the city often signals to a driver to stop or to go back or to hurry, or to do something else that he wants him to do, by gestures which are understood without any explanation.

Sign Language As a Substitute for Speech

There are certain groups of monks who maintain silence among themselves except in religious services. Since it is sometimes necessary to ask for information or to tell something, they have developed a set of gestures by which they can make known to each other such ideas as it is necessary to express. For example, the sign which they use for a house is made by indicating in the air the shape of a roof with the finger. To sing is expressed by beating time. Fire or a candle is denoted by holding up the forefinger and blowing, as one blows out a candle. Holding two fingers at the right of the nose signifies a friend, and at the left of the nose, an enemy. Such signs as the last mentioned could not be understood except by previous agreement as to what they should mean. The sign for silence is the same as that before described, the gesture of holding the finger against the lips.

Signs Used by Deaf Mutes

Persons who have never been able to hear do not know the sound of words, and so they very commonly talk by means

of signs. Such persons are now taught to speak in special schools for that purpose, but still they often use signs to express many ideas. There is an alphabet of signs in which the hand or fingers are held in a certain position to represent each letter, and by means of this deaf mutes are able to spell out words. But the most important part of their sign language consists of gestures which stand for ideas or words, not letters. These signs are not quite the same in all countries. For example, it is said that German deaf children used to make the motion of rowing a boat to indicate England, because it is separated from Germany by water. But a great many ideas are expressed in exactly the same manner in different countries.

*PICTORIAL MESSAGE SCRATCHED ON WOOD BY ALASKAN INDIANS

A figure with empty hands hanging down helplessly, palms down, as an Indian gesture for uncertainty, ignorance, emptiness, or nothing, means "no." A figure with one hand on its mouth means "eating," or "food." It points toward the tent, and this means "in the tent." The whole is a message stating "(There is) no food in the tent." Picture writing of this sort was without doubt an outgrowth of gestures.

Sign Language Among the Indians

One of the important forms of sign language is that which has been used and is still used to a great extent among some tribes of American Indians. Members of tribes that do not use the same spoken language often talk with one another in this way. When white men first came into this country they knew nothing of the Indian languages, and could not talk with the Indians in any other way than by gestures. The Indian languages are very different from English in character, and for this reason white

*From Breasted's *Ancient Times*, used by permission of Ginn & Co.

men have usually found it easier to learn the sign language used by these tribes than to learn their spoken languages. In any case a gesture language is easier to learn than a spoken language, because the sign often suggests its meaning, and because there is less of the sign language than of the spoken language. It does not attempt to express so many ideas. The Indian signs are very numerous, and, like the signs described above, they are often easy to understand without any previous knowledge, although a few of them do not seem very clear.

Deaf persons who do not know the Indian languages have sometimes found it possible to talk by signs with Indians, because both were used to sign language. While they did not always have the same sign for a particular idea, they quickly caught the meaning of signs that were different from those which they themselves used. A great many hundred Indian signs that are used in expressing ideas have been observed and described by persons who have spent much time among the Indians.

Pantomime in Plays

Plays are occasionally given on the stage in which the story is represented entirely by action, no words being spoken. Such a performance is called *pantomime.* In ancient times such entertainments were very common among the Romans, and there were many very skilful pantomime performers. A story is told of a king who once asked the Roman emperor Nero to let him have as interpreter a pantomime performer whom he had seen, because the people in his country spoke so many different languages that it was difficult to find anyone who knew all their languages. They would all be able to understand the signs made by the pantomime performer, no matter what language they spoke.

Sounds Accompanying Gestures

Since we find that signs have been used and are still used extensively as a means of making known one's ideas, it has been supposed by some that the earliest attempts of men to talk were merely sounds which accompanied gestures. The idea would be understood from the gesture, and then later the sound of the voice, which at first did not have much importance, would come to stand for the idea originally expressed by the gesture. When certain sounds came to be understood as expressing definite ideas, there would be advantages found in using these sounds or words instead of gestures. One cannot talk by gestures in the dark, or if he is hidden by a rock or tree from the person with whom he wishes to talk. Further, a person rowing a boat or carrying some object in his hands would be compelled to stop rowing or to put down his load in order to talk by gestures. If he uses spoken language, he may continue to use his hands for other purposes than to express ideas. Then, too, it is easier to combine sounds than gestures. For these reasons gesture language would naturally tend to go out of use as spoken language developed.

Sounds Expressive of Pleasure or Other Feelings

In addition to gestures made with the hands, it is quite natural for one to express his feelings by grimaces. When one tastes something exceedingly sour or bitter he is almost certain to make a wry face and at the same time, even without intending to do so, make a sound which is not a word but merely a noise that would be without meaning apart from the circumstances in which it is made. But anyone who sees the wry face and hears the sound would think of both as expressing the idea of an unpleasant taste. Sometimes when a child tastes something that he likes very much he will in the same manner make sounds which are

not words but which indicate pleasure. At the same time the expression of his face shows that he enjoys the taste of what he is eating. When one has noticed the expression of displeasure or enjoyment by sound and by the appearance of the face at the same time, he may come later to think of the sound alone as expressing the idea.

Imitative Vocal Sounds

There are, however, some words that have come from attempts to imitate sounds. It would be quite natural for men to try to repeat the cries of animals and other noises which they heard in the forest and about their dwelling places. We know that small children often imitate sounds in this manner. Thus a child will make a sound like 'bow wow' in attempting to imitate the bark of a dog. Then the child will come to use the sound as a name for the animal. The word 'buzz' which we use to denote the noise made by a bee or a fly seems to be an imitation of the sound. The Germans use *summen* or *sumsen* (pronouncing *s* like English *z*) for the same sound. There are some languages in which the word for 'cat' sounds like 'mew.' The name 'bob white,' which is often given to the American quail, and the name of the whippoorwill are imitations of the cries of these birds. Of course it would not be possible to do much talking with mere imitations of this kind, and if language began in this manner alone it would gradually increase by the combination of some of these sounds. There are some sounds that cannot be very well imitated by the voice, such as the crash of a falling tree or the noise of thunder, and yet we may imagine that if men in early times formed the habit of imitating various sounds they would attempt to imitate even these. The imitations might in such cases come to be used as names for the things imitated, and then in later times children would learn to make these sounds from hearing them used by their

parents or others. Since children who are learning to talk do not pronounce words exactly as older persons do, these imitative sounds which had become names would often come to be quite different from what they originally were, and their origin would be lost sight of. They would then be used just as we use words; that is, the meaning would be learned by children from older people without any regard to how the words were first formed.

Perhaps almost all spoken language came originally from the use of sounds of the voice which accompanied gestures or grimaces, or from imitations of sounds that men heard. The number of words used in very early times was much smaller than the number we use. We talk and think about many things of which uncivilized people had no knowledge. We have new inventions which require new words as names, and we tell of our thoughts and our feelings in a more exact manner than men who were less highly civilized.

QUESTIONS

1. By what means do we find out what was the probable character of the early forms of language?
2. What are some of the earliest traces we have of the development of intelligence among primitive men? Is it probable that language existed as early as the time of the earliest forms of art and manufacture?
3. How do animals express their feelings by their voices?
4. Name some differences between the language of human beings and the sounds which animals make with their voices.
5. Do the oldest existing specimens of language represent the forms in which language probably began?
6. How may one express his thoughts and wishes without the use of words?
7. Name four gestures or movements which would readily be understood by anyone as expressing ideas.
8. How does the umpire at a baseball game indicate the number of "balls" and "strikes"?

9. Could the traffic policeman direct traffic easily if he kept his hands in his pockets?

10. What are some of the signs used to express ideas by the order of monks who avoid speaking to one another? Would all these signs be readily understood by one who saw them for the first time, without any explanation?

11. How do deaf mutes first learn to communicate with each other and with other persons? Do they ever learn to speak?

12. What two kinds of signs are sometimes used by deaf mutes?

13. Are the signs used by deaf mutes the same in all countries? Is it probable that many signs would be the same?

14. Among what nation or nations of people who can speak has a sign language been used to an important extent? Why?

15. What is the name given to plays which are represented by action without words?

16. What use did the eastern king wish to make of the pantomime player whom he asked Nero to give him?

17. In addition to gestures with the hands, how does one sometimes show his feelings without words?

18. How may the beginning of language have been connected with gestures and grimaces?

19. What are some examples of words which seem to be formed by imitation of sounds?

20. How do children sometimes give names to animals?

21. What is the origin of such words as *bang, boom, crack, crash, hiss?* Are these words exact imitations?

22. Would imitative words always keep the same form?

23. What are the three most important sources from which words are believed to have come originally?

24. Why do civilized people employ more words than savages? Illustrate the difference in this respect between ourselves and the American Indians.

CHAPTER II

THE GROWTH OF VOCABULARY

Words Formed by the Combination of Other Words

One very common and important method by which mankind has increased its stock of words from time to time is the combination of two or more existing words into one new word. For example when the first railroad was built, a name for this new thing was made by combining the two words 'rail' and 'road.' The two original words, however, were kept with their former meanings, and so we now have three words from the material which originally gave us only two. That is, while the language formerly had 'rail' and 'road,' it now has 'rail,' 'road,' and 'railroad.' After a new word thus formed has been used for some time, we think of it as having its own special meaning, and we do not think of the separate parts of which it is composed. Thus we use the word 'railroad' to designate a particular thing, just as if the two parts of which it is made up had no separate existence.

Very often the words which are combined to make a new English word are taken from another language. The word 'telegraph' is formed by combining, with slight changes, two Greek words, *tele*, 'far,' 'far off,' and *grapho*, 'I write.' The telegraph, then, is a means of writing from a distance. Perhaps this does not seem to us a very exact description of its use, but it seemed to the inventor sufficiently exact to provide a name.

Hybrid Words

A word which is made up of elements from different languages is called a *hybrid* word. Thus in 'automobile' the

first two syllables are of Greek origin, and the last two of Latin origin. The word in its present form was first used in French, however, and then taken from French into English.

Another hybrid word is 'petroleum.' The first part is Greek, meaning 'rock,' the second is Latin, meaning 'oil.' The literal meaning, therefore, is 'rock-oil,' and this English name has sometimes been used. The word 'petrol,' which is much used in England for the form of petroleum used in automobile and airplane engines, is not an abbreviation, but a French form. slightly changed.

Words from Proper Names

A few words of rather common use have been formed from proper names. The verb 'tantalize,' to tease or annoy one by arousing expectations that are not fulfilled, comes from Tantalus, the name of a mythological character. According to the ancient story, Tantalus was punished for a crime by being made to suffer from thirst and hunger, while water and fruit were seemingly within his reach. But when he attempted to drink, the water flowed away from before him, and when he stretched out his hand for the fruit, the branches on which it grew moved just out of his reach.

The word 'atlas' comes from the name of the god, Atlas, who held up the universe. He is often represented as holding the world on his shoulders. There is also a mountain in Africa which has the same name, because the ancients thought of it as holding up the sky.

A rather recent word is 'boycott,' meaning to refuse to buy from a merchant or manufacturer or to have any dealings with him. A number of years ago a man named Boycott was employed as agent by the owner of a large estate in Ireland. He became very unpopular with the tenants, and they refused to have anything to do with him. He was finally compelled to leave the country as a result. Since

then the word has come to be used for an agreement of any sort which is intended to cut off dealings with anyone.

During the first French Revolution an instrument for the execution of condemned persons was invented by a Dr. Guillotin of Paris. From him it was called the 'guillotine.' From this noun in turn a verb has been formed in French, and in English we use 'guillotine' as a verb as well as a noun. An Italian noun has also been formed from this word.

A guide who shows visitors the points of interest in a town or region is often called a 'cicerone.' This word is the Italian form of the name of Cicero, the celebrated Roman orator. The guide usually attempts to set forth eloquently the history and features of interest of what he has to show, and the word was probably used jokingly at first.

'Galvanize,' 'galvanism,' and 'galvanic' are from Galvani, the name of an Italian physician who lived in the 18th century. A discovery made by Galvani in connection with electricity proved to be very important, and his name has been associated with the results of that discovery. The words 'watt' and 'volt,' which are used in certain measurements of the electric current, are also derived from the names of men whose studies and discoveries in regard to electricity were of importance.

'Currant,' the name of a kind of berry, is from Corinth. The word was originally applied to a variety of raisin that is produced about the eastern part of the Mediterranean. 'Damask,' a kind of silk or linen fabric with elaborate patterns, has its name from Damascus. 'Jovial' is connected in derivation with *Jupiter* (accusative *Jovem*), because the influence of the planet Jupiter was supposed to cause good humor. 'Jersey,' a garment, derives its name from one of the Channel Islands, off the coast of France. The name of this island is believed to come from *Caesarea*, which is formed from *Caesar*. 'Pheasant' is from the name of a river in

western Asia. 'Meander,' meaning to flow in a winding course, comes from the name of another river in Asia, which had a very crooked course.

Roots and Derivatives

We find both in our own language and in foreign languages groups of words which look somewhat alike and which have closely related meanings. For example 'wise,' 'wisely,' 'unwise,' 'wisdom,' 'wizard' are thus related in appearance and meaning. Similarly in Latin, *regere*[1] means 'to rule,' *rēgīna* means 'queen,' *rēx* (which has the form *rēgem* when object) means 'king,' *rēgnum* means 'kingdom.' All these words have the syllable *reg-* and all suggest the idea of 'ruling.' There are other Latin words and also some Greek words which have this same syllable. From a comparison of all these, we decide that the meaning suggested by *reg-* is something like 'rule' or 'guide.' The different words in which *reg-* appears are formed by the use of additional syllables or letters. A group of letters found in a number of words, as *reg-* is found in the Latin words given above, is called a *root*. Of the English words, 'tractor,' 'extract,' 'contraction,' we might say the root was *tract*, meaning 'draw.' However, in this case we can find a Latin word from which all these words are derived, and we can then find a root to which this Latin word is related. We do not know that these roots were ever used as words. No doubt there were once words very much like them, but we cannot find out exactly what their original form was. The fact that we find the same root appearing in such different languages as English, Latin, Greek, and some others, is very important. It is from this similarity in certain existing languages that we have learned a great deal about the languages of earlier times.

[1] For the pronunciation of these and other words from foreign languages, see page 211–215.

Many believe that the earliest language was made up of words which were something like the roots of words described above, and that other roots were used with these so frequently that the two came to make up one word, somewhat as the English 'don't' is made from 'do not.' Then one of these roots would finally come to be thought of as merely an ending, and later would be transferred to other words, to give them more definite meanings. We can see the manner in which the added syllables affect the meaning, from such a word as 'unfriendliness.' This is a noun denoting an attitude of mind. If we take off the first syllable, *un-*, we have left 'friendliness,' a noun of the opposite meaning from the original word. Then by dropping the last syllable, *-ness*, we get an adjective, 'friendly' (spelled with a final *y* instead of *i*). We can next drop the syllable *-ly* and we have left a noun, 'friend,' which denotes a person. A great many words can be analyzed in this manner, not only in English but also in other languages. There is a Latin adjective, *inremeābilis*, which means 'impassable a second time.' The first syllable, *in-*, means 'not,' like *un-* in 'unfriendliness.' The second syllable, *-re-*, means 'back' or 'again.' The last part, *-bilis*, has a meaning about like our 'able' or 'able to be.' The remaining part, *-meā-*, means 'go.' So we can see how the word may have grown by the addition of one syllable after another.

The Loss of Syllables

But we can see how a change of the opposite kind has also been taking place. Many of the words which we use were once longer than they now are. Thus the name of the month, 'August,' comes from the Latin *Augustus*. The word 'cab' is from 'cabriolet.' 'Omnibus' is generally replaced by 'bus.' Many persons say 'phone' for 'telephone.'

The tendency to use part of a word for the whole is seen in our employment of 'taxi.' The name should be 'taximeter cab,' but it was first shortened to 'taxicab,' and now we commonly hear the first part of the word used as a substitute for the entire word.

The word 'mob,' has come from a similar shortening. The Latin phrase *mōbile vulgus* means 'the fickle throng.' *Mōbile* alone was used instead of the phrase, and was then shortened to 'mob.' In England the expression 'public house,' which means a place where alcoholic liquors are sold, is frequently abbreviated to 'pub.' The word 'stones' was once pronounced in two syllables. Other languages show the same habit. The French *le*, 'the,' was once the Latin *ille*. Spanish *mar*, 'sea,' was once Latin *mare*. So while some long words were being formed by adding syllables to shorter ones, other long words were becoming shorter by being pronounced carelessly, or by having one syllable used instead of the entire word, as in the case of 'phone' and 'bus.'

The Omission or Change of Sounds Within a Word

There are certain parts of words which are more frequently pronounced indistinctly than other parts. If a word of three or more syllables is accented on the second syllable from the last, the vowel of the next to the last syllable is often indistinct. Thus as 'confident' is usually pronounced we can not be certain whether the second syllable is *fi*, *fe*, *fa*, or *fu*. Frequently a word of this sort containing three syllables is pronounced as if it had only two syllables. Thus, we sometimes hear persons say 'famly' for 'family,' 'memry' for 'memory,' and 'vilence' for 'violence.' Occasionally we hear careless speakers who disregard a consonant in the middle of a word, especially if it is one of a group of two or three consonants. Such persons may say 'goverment' for 'govern-

ment.' One of a group of consonants at the end of a word is also frequently disregarded. 'Lifts' is sometimes pronounced 'lifs.' In such words as 'hands' the difference between the pronunciation with and without *d* is so slight that it is scarcely possible to tell whether or not *d* is sounded.

The cause of the shortening of words or the change of sounds is often carelessness or laziness. It takes less effort to use a short word than a long one, and it seems easier for us to pronounce some sounds than others. But in many cases it is difficult to prove that these tendencies to drop or to change certain sounds represent anything more than habit, the original source of which is unknown. Any sound that is uncommon is apt to seem difficult. Thus it seems difficult for us to pronounce *kn* at the beginning of a word, and we pronounce 'knave' and 'knock' as though the *k* did not exist. In some other languages such combinations as *kn* are regularly pronounced. When for some reason this combination of sounds at the beginning of a word became rare, it would naturally come to seem difficult. Some persons usually pronounce *n* for *ng* at the end of a word, and so they say 'walkin' instead of 'walking.' We sometimes hear 'hunderd' for 'hundred,' 'childern' for 'children,' 'perfeckly' for 'perfectly.' We have also dropped some sounds in the middle of words, although we still keep the letters which indicate how they were once pronounced. This is true of 'calm,' 'half,' 'handkerchief.' The effort to make oneself clearly understood may also lead to a change in the pronunciation of a word. The trilling of the letter *r* by the telephone operators in some cities arises from this cause.

Fashions in Speech

Still another reason which has doubtless brought about changes is the tendency to imitate those who are influential in the community. We know how fashions in dress spread

from those who for some reason are accepted as leaders in such matters. It is said that Louis XIV of France wore high-heeled shoes because he wished to disguise in some degree the fact that he was of exceedingly short stature. As a result the members of his court wore shoes of the same sort. One can easily imagine that if a king pronounced certain words in a peculiar way these pronunciations would be imitated, and might easily become the standard pronunciation. The pronunciation of 'either' and 'neither' with *ei* sounded as in 'height' is said to have originated with King George the First or one of his immediate successors, who spoke German more fluently than English and hence gave the German pronunciation to *ei* in these words.

Analogy

There is another reason for changes in language, which is called *analogy*. Analogy means similarity or likeness. Children and uneducated persons often use words incorrectly because they suppose two words to be alike or to have similar forms, when they are really quite different. We sometimes hear 'throwed' instead of 'threw,' because the past tense of 'throw' is incorrectly supposed to be like that of 'show' and other words which end in *ed* in the past tense. Uneducated persons sometimes say 'brung' instead of 'brought,' because they suppose the past participle of 'bring' is like that of 'sing.' Young children sometimes say 'foots' instead of 'feet,' because they have learned that the plural of most nouns ends in *s*.

Such changes as those which have been described above do not usually affect the meaning of words, or the manner in which they are put together in sentences. We shall, however, see later how meanings change, and how word forms which served to show the use of a word become lost or modified.

Influences Which Retard Change

Among educated people changes of language take place somewhat more slowly than among the uneducated. Schools have a tendency to prevent carelessness of speech. Children who come from homes where they have learned incorrect forms of words are likely to have these errors corrected in school and to imitate the manner in which their teachers and playmates speak.

The fact that in modern times people travel freely from one part of the country to another tends to prevent the language of any region from developing forms which differ greatly from those used in other regions. If one finds that the pronunciation or the forms of words which he uses are looked upon as incorrect or ridiculous by persons whose opinion he respects, he is apt to change his manner of speech.

Pronunciations that have grown up in certain regions are apt to be modified by the influence of those who teach in the schools of these regions, either because these teachers have lived in other parts of the country or have been educated away from their native region. The pronunciation of the schools is usually looked upon as correct, and local pronunciation tends to give up its peculiarities.

Books and the Standard of Speech

Books also have a tendency to prevent rapid changes. When a book is greatly admired and often read, the language in which it is written is likely to be imitated to some extent by those who read it. Then if someone who has admired this book wishes to write another book, he will use very much the same form of words and the same spelling. In this manner a certain form of words comes to be considered correct, and any other form is called incorrect, and is avoided by most persons. When schools came into existence, certain books were used in the teaching of reading, and the language of

these books had much to do with the form of language employed by those who studied in the schools. Thus Shakespeare and the English Bible have perhaps had more influence on the forms of modern English than any other books. The poems of Chaucer were also very important at an earlier time in making prominent a form of early English from which the later form has come. A German translation of the Bible made by Martin Luther is said to have been the most important influence in establishing the present form of the German language. The writings of Cicero were imitated by the Romans for a long time, and were probably more important than anything else in determining the standard of what was the best Latin. The present form of the Italian language was determined to a great extent by the writings of Dante and Petrarch. In every language which has a literature some books have in this way been taken as models at the time when education had not yet established the form of the language.

Changes in the Standard of English Speech

But this does not mean that literature and schools entirely prevent language from changing. A great many words which Shakespeare used would not be understood today by one who had not studied the works of Shakespeare, or of other writers of his time, and the spelling of many other words that we still use has greatly changed. The spelling used in the English Bible when it was first printed was different from that which is found in the Bible today. However, we can still read books that were printed three hundred years ago, although there are some words which we do not understand, and others look strange.

No doubt there will be still other changes, and fifty years from now some words that we use will not be much used, while new words will have been introduced. Some changes in standards of correct pronunciation are continually coming

about, although we do not readily notice them. New inventions especially add new words to a language. The words 'telephone,' 'automobile,' 'tractor,' and 'airplane' did not exist one hundred years ago, because the things which these words name had not been invented. On the other hand, some words which we now seldom hear, such as 'flail,' 'andiron,' 'pack-saddle,' 'flintlock,' 'homespun,' were very commonly used then.

A language spoken by a people who are vigorous and who think a great deal seems in many cases to change more than one spoken by a people whose minds are less active.

QUESTIONS

1. How have new words sometimes been formed for new inventions?
2. Give some common words which have been made by combining familiar words.
3. Explain the formation of the word *telegraph.*
4. What is a hybrid word? Give an example.
5. What is the meaning of *tantalize?* Tell the story of Tantalus.
6. Explain the origin of *boycott.*
7. What is the source of *galvanic? volt?*
8. What is a *meandering* stream?
9. What is meant by *root* in word study?
10. Analyze the word *unfriendliness.*
11. Write out the Latin word *inremeābilis* and divide it into its elements.
12. Give two English words which have been made by shortening longer words.
13. What can you say regarding the change or omission of an unaccented vowel in the middle of a word?
14. Illustrate the loss of a consonant sound from a group of two or more consonants.
15. How may fashions of speech sometimes affect the development of language?
16. What is *analogy?* Give an illustration of its use.

17. Mention some of the influences which tend to retard change in language.

18. How have books influenced the standard of language?

19. Mention two books that have been especially important in the development of English.

20. Name some books or writers that were important for the standard form of some other languages than English.

21. Is the standard of language unchanging throughout the centuries?

22. What can you say regarding changes in English?

CHAPTER III

THE ALPHABET

Differences in Alphabets

If we take up the study of Russian or German or Arabic for the purpose of learning to read these languages, we find that the letters with which the words are printed are not the same as those we use in English. We must learn a new alphabet before we can begin to read.

Some alphabets have a larger number of letters than we use, and some of them differ so greatly from our alphabet in character as well as in appearance that an English-speaking person finds it a very difficult task to learn them.

Picture Writing

Uncivilized nations which have no written language and no alphabet sometimes use pictures or marks to convey messages or information, but they have no means of spelling out words or of expressing ideas which require careful and exact statement. One could indicate that he meant to begin war by sending an arrow or a picture of an arrow to an enemy. A picture of a man holding out his hand might show that the person sending the picture wished to make an offer of friendship. Picture writing of this sort was often used by the American Indians.

Men learned how to make pictures in very early times. In some of the caves of southern France and northern Spain there have been found very interesting traces of life long before history began, and among these are pictures representing scenes of those far distant times. But we cannot find that the people who lived in these caves and made pictures

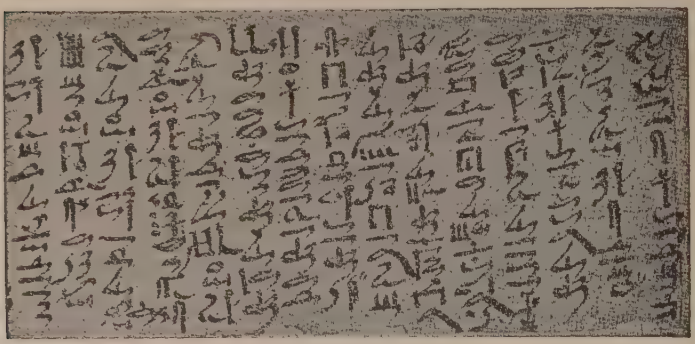
of the animals that they hunted ever developed any kind of writing. Perhaps they drew pictures because of the pleasure they got out of doing so rather than because they wished to make known what they had done.

Egyptian Hieroglyphics

Other ancient peoples, though by no means so ancient as the cave dwellers of southern Europe, did develop a means of expressing ideas by pictures, and so made for themselves a system of writing. The most important of these early systems of writing was that of the Egyptians. The pictures which the Egyptians used to record events and to express ideas are called *hieroglyphics*. This name is derived from two Greek words, *hieros*, 'sacred,' and *glypho*, 'carve.' Hieroglyphics were thought of as sacred because it was originally believed that they were used only by the priests, and they first became known to modern civilization from inscriptions carved on monuments of stone. They were, however, sometimes cut in wood or plaster or written on material which served the same purpose to the ancients that paper serves to us.

The number of characters used in hieroglyphic writing was very great. It must have been a long task to learn to write them correctly. At first a picture was used to express an entire idea. Thus the word or idea 'night' was represented by a picture of a star hanging from a curve that represented the sky. 'Battle' was represented by a picture showing two human arms, one holding a shield, the other a javelin. It was more difficult to find pictures or signs for such ideas as 'justice,' 'sickness,' 'health,' 'knowledge,' and the like. But the Egyptians had hieroglyphics for such ideas. For example, a picture of an ostrich feather was used for 'justice,' because these feathers were thought to be of equal length. A bee stood for 'industry.' In some cases we do not know why

certain signs were used, and it is not always easy to be sure of their meaning. Some of the examples of this Egyptian writing are more than six thousand years old.



*A PAGE FROM THE STORY OF THE SHIPWRECKED SAILOR, THE EARLIEST SINBAD, AS READ BY THE BOYS AND GIRLS OF EGYPT FOUR THOUSAND YEARS AGO (ONE THIRD OF SIZE OF ORIGINAL)

This page reads: "Those who were on board perished, and not one of them escaped. Then I was cast upon an island by a wave of the great sea. I passed three days alone with (only) my heart as my companion, sleeping in the midst of a shelter of trees till daylight enveloped me. Then I crept out for aught to fill my mouth. I found figs and grapes and all fine vegetables, etc. . . . "

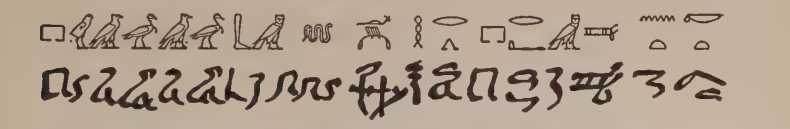
After a time someone discovered that these signs could be used not only to express the idea for which they were first used, but also to represent a sound or syllable. Thus, if we had begun in English by using the picture of a bee to represent the bee itself, we might afterwards come to use the same picture to represent the verb 'be,' because of the agreement of the two words in sound, and again we might use it for the first syllable of such a word as 'believe.' It was in this way that the

*From Breasted's *Ancient Times*, by permission of Ginn & Co.

Egyptians came to form or to select a kind of alphabet from the great number of pictures that they used. But they also continued the use of the earlier forms of pictures along with the signs that were used for sounds.

Changes in the Forms of Egyptian Writing

In writing with pen and ink or with pencil we do not use the same forms of letters as those used in printing, because it would take too long to do so. When the Egyptians came to write on a material of the same character as paper, they also changed the forms of the letters or pictures which they



*AN EXAMPLE OF EGYPTIAN HIEROGLYPHICS (UPPER LINE) AND ITS EQUIVALENT IN THE RAPID RUNNING HAND (LOWER LINE) WRITTEN WITH PEN AND INK ON PAPYRUS

The daily business of an Egyptian community, of course, required much writing and thousands of records. Such writing, after it began to be done with pen and ink on papyrus, soon became very rapid. In course of time, therefore, there arose a rapid or running hand in which each hieroglyphic sign was much abbreviated. In the above example the signs in the lower row show clearly that they are the result of an effort to make quickly the signs in the hieroglyphic row above.

used. Sometimes the change is so great that it is hard for us to see the connection between the original picture and the form used in later writing. Some persons believe that the later forms of these Egyptian letters were borrowed by other nations and that our own alphabet is indirectly derived from them.

*From Breasted's *Ancient Times*, by permission of Ginn & Co.

Babylonian Writing

There was another system of writing which had developed very early, in the southwestern part of Asia. In the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers lies the region called Mesopotamia, a Greek word meaning 'the space between the rivers.' Here a great civilization existed as far back as seven thousand years ago. Babylon became the most important city in this region, but there were several different nations which in turn controlled the country. Some of the specimens of writing that have been found here are older than the earliest Egyptian writing.

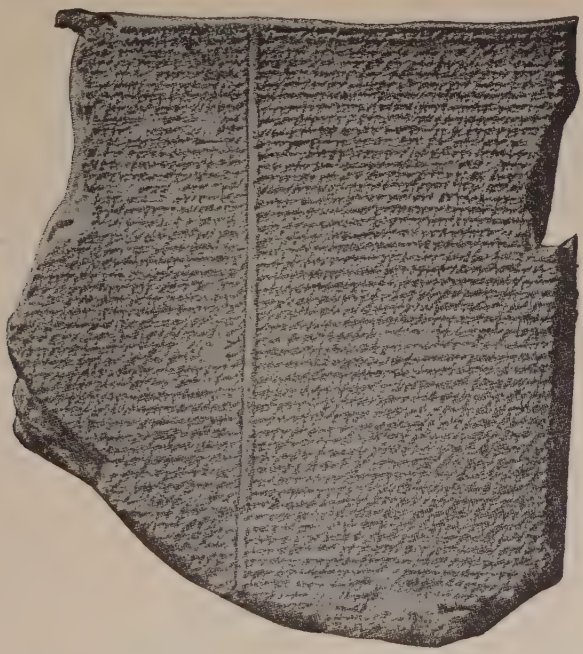
This Babylonian writing is not picture writing like the early Egyptian hieroglyphics. Probably it began in that manner, but if so it had changed before the time at which the oldest existing specimens were written. Its letters are made of curious marks which are usually wide at one end and pointed at the other somewhat like a wedge. It is called 'cuneiform' from the Latin word *cuneus*, 'a wedge.' The

*INSCRIPTION IN CUNEIFORM CHARACTERS

letters were made by pressing the end of a stick on the soft clay in such a way as to make a line of the sort seen in the picture below. Then when the writing was done the clay tablets were baked as we bake bricks. It would be rather expensive to secure and take care of a large library of this sort.

*From Breasted's *Ancient Times*, by permission of Ginn & Co.

These strange-looking marks on bricks and tablets of clay or cut on rocks were known to Europeans for many years before anyone succeeded in finding out what they meant. Men



*PORTION OF OLD BABYLONIAN STORY OF THE FLOOD

This large flat tablet was part of an Assyrian cuneiform book consisting of a series of such tablets. This flood story tells how the hero built a great ship and thus survived a terrible flood in which all his countrymen perished.

who studied them carefully were able to make out a few facts regarding them, but no one was able to read them until a fortunate discovery was made by an Englishman, Sir Henry

*From Breasted's *Ancient Times*, by permission of Ginn & Co.

Rawlinson. Cut in the rock on the face of a great cliff in the eastern part of Persia, there was an inscription in three languages. One of these was an old form of the Persian, another was the Babylonian. Rawlinson climbed up to a place where he could see these inscriptions, a very difficult and dangerous thing to do, and copied them carefully. Then by the help of the Persian copy it was possible to gain knowledge of the Babylonian, and so to make out the alphabet in which it was written. Since that time much has been learned about the language of these ancient nations. Most of the cuneiform writing that has been found is on clay tablets.

The Cretan Inscriptions

Still a third center of ancient civilization was in the island of Crete, in the eastern part of the Mediterranean Sea. We know less of this early Cretan life than of ancient Egypt and Mesopotamia. There are some who think that a part of Greece rather than Crete was the most important center of this early civilization. This reference to Greece must not, however, be taken to mean the Greek civilization of historic times, which belonged to a much later period. We find inscriptions in this region, but no one has yet been able to make anything of the language or of the alphabet. Perhaps someone will yet find an inscription in Cretan and some known language as in the case of the cuneiform writing of the Babylonians.

About twelve hundred years before the beginning of the Christian era, this Cretan (or Aegean, as it is sometimes called) civilization was destroyed by enemies coming from the north. The cities were burned and the country was seized by a people who were much less highly civilized, and so this Cretan civilization was lost to later ages and its language was forgotten.

The Phoenicians

At about this time a new nation came into power in this region, which had great influence on the later languages of Europe. This was the nation of the Phoenicians, who inhabited a strip of country at the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea, south of Asia Minor. Their two chief cities were Tyre and Sidon. The Phoenicians were sailors and merchants, and possibly as a result of their need for a means of writing in connection with their business affairs, they developed or borrowed an alphabet. It has been believed by some scholars that the Phoenician alphabet was developed from the later form of the Egyptian. Others think it came from the Cretans, or that it was derived from several different sources. No doubt the Phoenicians were familiar with the Egyptian and also with the cuneiform systems of writing. And so, even if their alphabet came mainly from one source, it might have the forms of its letters somewhat changed from the influence of other alphabets, or some letters might have been borrowed from these alphabets.

The Early Greek Alphabet

The Greeks had a legend that a Phoenician prince named Cadmus came to Greece and founded a city, and that he brought the alphabet to Greece from Phoenicia. Whatever may have been the manner of its introduction, it is generally believed that the Phoenician alphabet was the source of the Greek alphabet. The oldest forms of the Greek alphabet are not to be found in books, but in inscriptions cut in stone, and the letters in these very old inscriptions are quite similar to those used in inscriptions which employ the Phoenician letters. These old Greek inscriptions were not written and read from left to right as is true of English and most other modern languages, but from right to left. When the Greeks began to write from left to right, as we do, the form of some

of the letters was reversed. For example, while the capital letter B as it was made by the later Greeks had the upright straight line on the left side just as we make it, in these very early inscriptions the upright line is on the right side, thus, ꟽ. A similar change took place in the form of the capital letter E. Some old inscriptions are found in which the writing, instead of always beginning either at the right or the left, runs back and forth.

The Two Forms of the Later Greek Alphabet

The region in which Greek was spoken did not originally make up a kingdom or country with a common government, but consisted of a number of independent states and cities. The form of speech was not quite the same everywhere, and after the alphabet was introduced, it began to be written in a somewhat different form in different regions. One form was adopted by the Athenians, and because of the great influence of Athens this form came into use in a large part of the Greek-speaking world. This was the alphabet in which the Greek literature that has come down to us was written, and from it the modern Greek alphabet is derived. The other form of the old alphabet, which is sometimes called the Western Greek alphabet, was adopted by the people of Chalcis, a city on one of the Greek islands. The people of this island established a number of colonies in the southern part of Italy, and thus the form of the alphabet which was used at Chalcis was carried to Italy. From these Greek settlers the Romans learned the alphabet in which, with some changes, Latin was written. There were also some other languages besides Latin spoken in Italy in very early times, and these also used the Greek alphabet. These languages, however, were finally replaced by Latin.

Development of the Latin Alphabet

Some languages have sounds that do not exist in other languages. For example the French sound of *u* and the German sound of *ch* are not used in English. In like manner, Greek had certain sounds that did not exist in Latin, and so the letters representing these sounds were not needed by the Romans.

In that form of the Greek alphabet from which the Latin alphabet developed, *z* stood as the seventh letter. The letter *c* originally had two sounds in Latin, one the same as that of English *k*, the other the same as *g* in such words as 'go.' Since these two sounds are made in the same position in the mouth and differ only in the fact that one employs voice while the other is merely a whispered or breathed sound, it does not seem very strange that they should have been thus represented by the same character. But the Romans found it more convenient to have two different letters, and so they formed *g* by merely adding a line or stroke to the lower part of *c*. If you will compare the forms of the capital C and G you will see how closely they are related. This new letter was given the voiced sound (that is, the sound in 'go') formerly represented by *c*, while *c* was kept for the *k*-sound. For a time *z* dropped out of use, and *g* was given the position in the alphabet formerly occupied by *z*. Later on *z* was brought back because it was needed for the sound of some words which had been borrowed from the Greeks, and *y* was introduced for the same reason. These two letters were then placed last. The Latin alphabet had no *j* or *w*, and *v* was merely another form for *u*.

This Latin alphabet is the most important for us of all the alphabets, because from it has come the alphabet which we use, and also that used by all the nations of Europe except Greece, Russia, and some of the smaller nations in southeastern Europe.

Writing Materials

I	II	III	IV	V
Phenician	Early Greek read from right to left	Later Greek read from left to right	Latin	English
𐤀	A	A	A	A
𐤁	S 𐤆	B	B	B
𐤂	1	Γ	C G	C.G
𐤃	Δ	Δ	D	D
𐤄	𐤄	E	E	E
𐤅	Y	Y	F V	F.V.U
𐤆	I	I	...	Z
𐤇	𐤇	H	H	E.H
𐤈	⊗	⊗	...	TH.PH
𐤉	𐤉	I	I	I
𐤊	𐤊	K	...	K.KH
𐤋	𐤋	Λ	L	L
𐤌	M	M	M	M
𐤍	N	N	N	N
𐤎	𐤎	Ξ	X	X
𐤏	O	O	O	O
𐤐	1	Π	P	P
𐤑	M	M	...	S
𐤒	Φ	Φ	Q	Q
𐤓	4	P	R	R
𐤔	3	Σ	S	S
𐤕	T	T	T	T

*TABLE SHOWING HOW THE PHOENICIAN LETTERS PASSED THROUGH GREEK AND LATIN FORMS TO REACH THEIR PRESENT ENGLISH FORMS

*From Breasted's *Ancient Times*, by permission of Ginn & Co.

We have seen that the oldest forms of writing which exist were cut in stone instead of being written with ink on paper or any similar material. Since it is easier to make straight lines than curves when one is cutting in any hard material, the early forms of letters were more like our capital letters. Later, when writing came into more extensive use, some material was needed on which writing could be done easily and conveniently. The Egyptians discovered that material for this purpose could be made from a plant called papyrus, which grew in Egypt. The stalks of the papyrus plant had an inside pith, as a corn stalk has. This could be arranged in strips laid crosswise and then

pressed into thin sheets. A sort of gum was used to fasten the strips together before they were put under the press. The sheets of papyrus which were thus made were somewhat rough, and even after they had been rubbed to make them as smooth as possible, they would have seemed to us poor material on which to write. But the ancient pens were dull-pointed, and so the writers got along very well. Our word 'paper' is derived from 'papyrus.' Still later it was found that some kinds of leather could be tanned very thin and used instead of papyrus. The leather used for this purpose is called 'parchment.' This word is derived from *pergamēna*, an adjective which in turn is from *Pergamum*, the name of a city in Asia where good parchment was produced. The two words do not look or sound much alike to us, but if we look at the different spellings in earlier times, we can see how the change in form has come about. Papyrus went out of use many centuries before the art of printing was discovered, and when new copies were made of the books which had originally been written on papyrus, they were made on parchment. Nearly all the books in use when printing began were written on parchment.

Influence of Writing Materials on the Forms of Letters

At first the forms of letters used in writing on papyrus were the same as those which had been used in inscriptions cut in stone. That is, they were what we should call capital letters, and were all the same height. But as a result of the effort to write more rapidly the Romans gradually modified the letters that they used. In some of the books which they valued most, however, they still used the old capital-letter forms. Thus there are still in existence parts of manuscripts of the poems of Vergil written entirely in capitals. These old manuscripts are not so easy to read as our modern books,

for the reason that there are no spaces between words. The later manuscripts, however, do sometimes have spaces between the words just as we have.

As a result of the efforts to write more rapidly than it was possible to do when using capitals, a form of writing that resembled the small letters which we use was developed. But just as the handwriting of different persons today is quite unlike, so the writing of the men who copied the books differed, although there were certain general styles of writing in different countries.

When printing with movable type was begun about 1480, the forms of letters first used were those which had been employed in manuscripts. They had heavier lines than those now used in English, and the page looked much blacker. The modern German letters were developed from these. The first English letters were made from a clearer style of writing, and the forms which have developed from them are now used throughout Europe, except in German-speaking countries and in countries that use the Greek alphabet or one derived from it. Some languages, such as Polish and Swedish, use certain marks placed over some letters to indicate special sounds. French also has accent marks placed over some of the vowels.

Different Sounds for the Same Letters in Different Languages

But it must be remembered that the same letter does not always have the same sound in all languages. For example we pronounce *ti* as *sh* in such words as 'nation' and 'notion.' In French the sound of *ti* in such words is that of English *ci* in 'city.' Before *e* and *i* sounds, *c* has the sound of *s* in French, of *th* in Spanish, and of *ch* (as in 'chance') in Italian.

The sound we give to *i* in 'fine' is never given to that letter

in French or any other of the Romance languages. The letter *u* in French is given a sound that does not quite correspond to any sound we use in English words. These different sounds for the same letter have come from one original sound because of habits of pronunciation which came to differ in different parts of the world.

The alphabet used by the Russians contains thirty-five letters. It is called the Cyrillic alphabet, because it was believed that St. Cyril, who lived in the ninth century A. D., had first arranged it by taking the Greek alphabet and adding new letters to represent sounds not found in the Greek language. The Cyrillic is also used in Bulgaria, and in part of the country of the Jugo-Slavs. It was at one time used in Rumania, but has been replaced by the Latin alphabet.

Other Important Alphabets

Among the most important forms of writing, apart from those derived from the Latin and Greek alphabets, are the Hebrew, Arabic, and Chinese. The Hebrew and Arabic are in origin related to the Phoenician. The Chinese, however, cannot properly be said to have an alphabet, since the characters used in writing do not represent sounds as do the letters of the alphabets that have been described. Chinese writing is from the top downward instead of across the page. The Japanese form of writing is derived from the Chinese, but it has been changed in many respects.

There are said to be in existence about fifty different alphabets, nearly half of which are found in India and are not of great importance to us. The most important of all are the Latin, Greek, Arabic, and Chinese, and those which are derived from them. In these are written the languages of the most powerful nations of the world, with their great literatures.

QUESTIONS

1. What substitute for written language is employed by uncivilized nations?
2. What is the most important of the early forms of picture writing?
3. What is the derivation of the word *hieroglyphic?*
4. How was the word or idea *night* expressed in the Egyptian hieroglyphics? What are some disadvantages of picture writing as compared with the use of an alphabet such as ours?
5. Explain how characters or marks came to represent sounds instead of ideas.
6. What is one reason for the change in the form of letters or hieroglyphics?
7. Where is Mesopotamia? What was an important city of this region in ancient times?
8. What is the name given to the form of writing of which specimens are found in Mesopotamia? How do these compare with the Egyptian hieroglyphic writing as regards antiquity?
9. How was it made possible in modern times to read the cuneiform inscriptions?
10. What was the material on which the "books" of the Babylonians were written?
11. Where is Crete? What can be said of the written language of the early Cretan civilization?
12. Where was Phoenicia? What are some of the theories regarding the origin of the Phoenician alphabet?
13. What is believed to be the source of the Greek alphabet?
14. On what material do we find the oldest specimens of Greek writing which have come down to us?
15. What was the direction in which the very early Greek writing was written and read?
16. What are some changes in the forms of letters which were made when the direction of the writing was reversed?
17. What was an important reason for variations in the form of the Greek alphabet in different regions?
18. Name an important city in which the Eastern Greek alphabet was used.
19. How was the Greek alphabet introduced into Italy?
20. What important alphabet was developed from the Western Greek alphabet?

21. What are some of the changes which were made by the Romans in the Greek alphabet as they adapted it to their needs?

22. Which of the letters of our English alphabet were not employed by the Romans?

23. How were the forms of letters affected by the fact that the early writings were usually cut in stone?

24. What is *papyrus?* By whom was it first used to provide material on which to write?

25. How were the sheets of papyrus prepared?

26. What is *parchment?* From what is its name derived?

27. What change in the form of letters of the alphabet came about as a result of the use of papyrus and parchment?

28. What is the origin of the small letters of our modern alphabet?

29. What was the date of the invention of printing? How had books been manufactured before that time?

30. What are some differences in the use of the alphabet in English and French?

31. Illustrate some of the different sounds which the same letter or letters may have in different languages.

32. What is the origin of the Russian alphabet?

33. Mention an important difference between Chinese writing and our own.

34. What are the most important alphabets from the point of view of our civilization? Why?

CHAPTER IV

CLASSES OF LANGUAGES

Language Groups

If we compare the words that we find in a French newspaper or book with those of newspapers or books printed in Spanish or Italian, we shall find many words which look alike. For example, the word for 'sea' is *mer* in French, *mar* in Spanish, and *mare* in Italian. The adjective 'new' is *neuve* in French, *nuevo* in Spanish, and *nuovo* in Italian. On the other hand, if we compare French with Polish or Russian we shall not be able to see much resemblance. But if we compare Polish and Russian with each other, we shall again find many words that are similar, just as in the case of French, Spanish, and Italian. This does not mean that one who understands French can also understand Spanish, or that one who knows Polish will be able to read or speak Russian without studying that language. But it shows that certain languages resemble each other, and hence may be said to form a language group, while the languages of one group differ greatly from those of another.

Differences in Language Structure: Isolating Languages

Languages differ in other respects besides that of having different words for the same thing. Thus, in English we say 'boy' when we mean only one, and 'boys' when we mean more than one. For 'walk' we say 'walked' if the act took place in past time. That is, we change the form of a word to show the difference between singular and plural number and between present and past time. But there are some lan-

guages in which words always have the same form. It is rather difficult for us to realize how people can get on without forms which show the difference between singular and plural and between present and past, but some languages that are spoken by a great number of persons do not have forms to show number or tense.

The most important language of this class is the Chinese. There is also a group of languages spoken south and west of China which are of the same class. No Chinese word has more than one syllable. Words are put together to make sentences in such a way that the sense is not always clear to us even when we know the meaning of each word, but this seems to the Chinese a perfectly natural form of expression. Such languages as the Chinese, in which words never change their form, are sometimes called *isolating* languages. It was once believed that they represented an earlier form of language, and that other languages which were once similar to them afterward came to use endings, while these isolating languages remained unchanged. But many now think that the Chinese once had endings to express different uses of words, and that these endings were gradually dropped until none remain.

Inflectional Languages

There is a second class of languages, which includes Latin, Greek, Arabic, German, and many others. These languages are called *inflectional*. They have many different forms for the same word. Thus the Latin word for 'girl,' *puella*, has the forms *puella*, *puellae*, *puellam*, *puellā* in the singular number, and in the plural it has *puellae*, *puellārum*, *puellīs*, *puellās*. Some of these forms have the same meaning as prepositional phrases in English. For example, 'of girls' is translated *puellārum*. When 'girl' is used as subject of the sentence it is *puella;* when it is object it is *puellam*.

Some of the other inflectional languages have many more forms than Latin has.

The order of words in a sentence is apt to be quite different in inflectional languages from what it is in English and similar languages. Thus, in the English sentence "The boy saw the dog," the meaning would be different if we changed the order of the words. But in Latin the verb could be put at the end or the word for 'dog' could be put at the beginning, and we should still be able to understand the meaning, because the forms of Latin words show which is subject and which is object.

Analytical Languages

English, French, Spanish, Italian, and some other of the languages of Europe, belong to still another class, which is called *analytical*. These languages use prepositions extensively to express ideas that are shown by word endings in inflectional languages. Thus instead of *puellārum* we say 'of girls,' using the preposition 'of' where the Latin used merely the case ending *-ārum*. The Latin *amāre* is in English 'to love.' It is true that we have a few endings, as for example *-s* for the plural, and some verb endings, such as *-ed* in the past tense. But we use a great many prepositions where the inflectional languages use case endings. The adjectives in inflectional languages were made plural, as well as the nouns. This is still true of some languages which are called analytical, such as Spanish and French. But these languages have lost nearly all the case endings, and so we call them analytical, even though they have a few more endings than are found in English.

There are some other languages in which the changes in forms are somewhat different in character from those of the inflectional languages described above, and these are sometimes regarded as forming a separate class. If instead of

using the ending *-ed* with 'walk' to make the past tense, 'walked,' we should write 'did-walk,' or 'walk-did,' as one word, we should have a parallel to the forms of these languages. The Turkish, Finnish, and Hungarian languages belong to this class. It also includes most of the languages of the American Indians and some languages of Africa.

These classes are only imperfect groupings, because a language which is inflectional may still have some prepositions used like those of an analytical language, and an analytical language may have a few inflections. Also, some languages which are usually included in the last of the classes given above are in many respects like inflectional languages. But the division into these classes may serve to point out the main differences.[1]

QUESTIONS

1. Give some reasons for believing that French, Spanish, and Italian are related.
2. Are Polish and French closely related?
3. What are some differences we find in languages aside from the different words which they have?
4. What is an important characteristic of the Chinese language?
5. What is the name given to the group of languages to which Chinese belongs?
6. Name some inflectional languages. What is the chief characteristic of this group?
7. How does inflection tend to make possible greater freedom in the arrangement of words?
8. How do analytical languages differ from inflectional languages? Name some analytical languages.
9. Why is it difficult to assign languages with exactness to these various groups?

[1] The languages commonly called analytical really stand midway between the isolating and the inflectional. A language which had no prepositions or words showing relations, but which always changed the form of a word to show its relation to other words would be truly inflectional, and such a language as Chinese might be regarded as representing the analytical type of language in the farthest development.

CHAPTER V

FAMILIES OF LANGUAGES

Basis of Grouping Languages into Families

We know that the French, Spanish, and Italian languages have come from Latin, and that the original Latin words have in the course of time taken somewhat different forms in these modern languages. Similarly if we compare Latin and Greek we can see that these also came from a common language. We do not, however, find any resemblance between Latin and Chinese or between Greek and Cherokee. A group of languages which show by their words and forms (that is, the manner in which plurals, tenses, and other facts about their grammar are shown) that they have come from a common language is called a *family* of languages. Many of these families are made up of languages spoken by tribes or nations that are of little importance to us, and we need not give much attention to them at present. But there are a few families which are especially important. They contain the languages which have produced the literature we read, and which are spoken or have been spoken by the nations that have played the greatest part in the world's history, and have had the most influence on our own history.

The Indo-European Family

The first of these families is called Indo-European or Aryan. The latter name is also given to the people who spoke the language from which the Indo-European languages are derived. We shall learn more of them later. The name Indo-European is used because some important languages of

this family are spoken in India and adjoining regions, and others in Europe. The following table shows the groups or branches that make up the Indo-European family:

TABLE OF MODERN INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES

I. Indo-Iranian branch.
   1. Many languages spoken in India
   2. Persian and some other languages spoken north and northwest of India

II. Armenian branch.
   Armenian

III. Balto-Slavic branch.
   Russian
   Polish
   Czecho-Slovak (Bohemian and Slovak)
   Serbo-Croatian
   Slovenian
   Bulgarian
   Lithuanian
   Lettic

IV. Germanic branch.
   Danish
   Norwegian
   Swedish
   High German
   Low German
   Dutch and Flemish
   English

V. Celtic branch.
   Welsh
   Irish
   Gaelic (Highland Scotch)
   Breton

VI. Italic or Latin branch.
- Italian
- French
- Spanish
- Portuguese
- Provençal
- Catalan
- Rumanian

VII. Greek or Hellenic branch.
- Modern Greek

VIII. Albanian branch.
- Albanian dialects

Note: The languages which are named above as making up the Indo-European family are developed from older representatives of these branches, some of which will be discussed later. Some languages which existed in earlier times have disappeared without leaving any modern form. For example there was once a number of languages spoken in Italy which made up the older Italic group. These all disappeared except the Latin, which developed into the languages making up the modern Italic or Latin group.

Some modern languages which are spoken by comparatively small groups or which have gone out of use entirely are omitted from this table.

The Languages of India

The first two branches belong to Asia. Of these, the Indo-Iranian branch consists of two divisions, the Indic and the Iranian. There was an ancient language of the Indic division called Sanskrit, which had an important literature, and from which much has been learned regarding the Indo-European languages. Europeans did not know much of the languages of India until about one hundred and fifty years ago, when some English scholars began to study the sacred books of the Hindus and to find out what the language in which they were written was like. It is not quite exact to call the language of all this literature Sanskrit, as

the language of the older books is somewhat different from the later form. But the name Sanskrit is commonly used for all. When Sanskrit began to be studied, some believed at first that this was the original language from which Greek and Latin had come. But later it was found that this was not true, and that these three languages as well as a number of others had come from a still older language. Many of the modern languages spoken in India, and also the language of the Gypsies, belong to this group.

Persian and Related Languages

The other division of the Indo-Iranian branch includes the language of Persia and some other countries lying north of India. This group is perhaps less important to us than the first, but the study of the ancient languages in this region helped to make known some facts regarding the older language from which all these Indo-European languages seem to have been derived. Also, the understanding of certain written material which has given us knowledge of the history of very ancient nations was made possible by the study of the languages of this group.

Armenian

Armenian forms a separate branch of the Indo-European languages, although it has borrowed many words from Persian. There are numerous books written in what is called classical Armenian. The modern form of the language has many dialects, and since Armenia has been until recently mainly under the control of the Turks, there is no one of these dialects which can be recognized as the national standard form of modern Armenian.

When we come to the European branches we find that they include our own language and also those of the nations with which we are most familiar.

The Balto-Slavic Branch

The first of the European branches, the Balto-Slavic, is found in northern and eastern Europe. A number of nations speaking these languages were subject to other nations before the Great War. The desire of the people to use their own language freely was opposed by the ruling nations, and as a result there developed a desire either for independence or for union with other nations using the same language. One of the most important of these nations thus ruled by others was Poland, which was divided among three countries, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Germany. Another was Bohemia, which was ruled by Austria. Then there were other peoples known as Slovaks and Slovenians which were also controlled by Austria-Hungary. Since the Serbians and several of the racial groups in the Austrian Empire belonged to the same language group, they wished to be united. The government of Austria-Hungary was unwilling to permit this, and the Slavs, as they are called, were harshly treated. When the Great War began, the Slavs who were in the Austrian army did not care to fight for a country for which they had no love, and many of them surrendered to the armies of the Allies whenever they had opportunity.

The most important of the Balto-Slavic languages, from the point of view of the numbers speaking it, is Russian. The old Russian empire included part of Poland, as has already been said, and also Ukraine, a country in which the language spoken is a dialect of Russian, sometimes called "Little Russian." There is a large Russian literature, and many Russian books have been translated into English.

Near the Baltic Sea is a small group of nations which speak languages related to Russian and Polish. The Lithuanian is the most important of these. The Lithuanians do not

have a literature that is of much interest to us, but their language probably is nearer than any other to the old form of speech from which have come the languages of this group. Another language of this group is Lettic or Lettish, spoken in Latvia.

The Germanic Branch

The Germanic group, to which English belongs, includes a number of languages spoken by many persons who have come to this country. Among these are what we sometimes call the Scandinavian languages, that is, Swedish, Norwegian, and Danish. These all came from one language, but they now differ both in the spelling and pronunciation of many words.

There are two forms of German, known as High German and Low German. The form which is used in the schools of Germany, and in which newspapers are printed, is High German. Low German is the form most used in conversation in some parts of Germany, and there have been a few books printed in it.

The language of Holland is called Dutch. It is related to Low German and also to English. The alphabet is the same as that which we use.

In some parts of Belgium a language called Flemish is used. It does not differ greatly from the Dutch, with which it had a common origin. It has adopted a number of words of French origin, and a few peculiarities distinguish it from Dutch.

While English is classified as a Germanic language, we shall see later that it has lost much of its resemblance to this group and has come to resemble the languages of the Latin group, especially in vocabulary.

The Celtic Branch

The Celtic branch is found in western Europe. Some of the Celtic languages have no literature of any importance,

while others have a number of books. The ancient language which was spoken in a large part of what is now France, before the Romans conquered these regions and introduced Latin, was a Celtic language called Gaulish or Gallic. It has disappeared entirely except for a few words. The people along part of the west coast of France speak a Celtic language called Breton, which is very different from French. This region is known as Brittany. The ancestors of the Bretons came over to France from the island of Great Britain a great many hundred years ago, and brought with them the form of Celtic language which was then spoken in Great Britain. Over a million persons speak the Breton language, but most of them speak French also.

Other Celtic languages are spoken in parts of Scotland, Ireland, Wales, and the Isle of Man, an island lying between Great Britain and Ireland. But the modern Irish and Scotch dialects, which are only a little different from English, must not be thought to be the Celtic languages which are referred to above. These Celtic languages are entirely different from English, and an English-speaking person cannot understand them or read them without studying them, just as he would have to study French or Russian. The Scotch dialect in which the poems of Robert Burns are written is derived from the same source as the form of English which we use, and has nothing to do with the Celtic languages, except for the fact that it has a few words borrowed from Celtic.

Latin and Greek

The Latin and Greek branches are especially important because of the part which the people who spoke them have had in developing our civilization. We shall see later how these languages have influenced English, and how Latin has developed into a number of important modern languages.

Forms of Related Words in Indo-European Languages

The following table shows the similarity in form of some common words in a few of the most important Indo-European languages.

	English	*German*	*Latin*	*Greek*	*Sanskrit*
1.	father	vater	pater	πατήρ (patḗr)	pitár
2.	mother	mutter	māter	μᾱ́τηρ (Doric) (mā́tēr)	mātar
3.	brother	bruder	frāter	φρᾱ́τηρ (phrā́tēr)	bhrātar
4.	is	ist	est	ἐστί (estí)	ásti
5.	(to) stand	stehen	stāre	στῆναι (stḗnai)	staya-(Avestan)
6.	(house)	———	domus	δόμος (dómos)	dama(h)

Non-Indo-European Languages in Europe

There are a few languages found in Europe which do not belong to the Indo-European family. Among these are the languages of Hungary, Finland, and Lapland, and the Turkish language. Near the Pyrenees mountains in Spain and France is found a small group of people speaking a language called Basque, which does not seem to be closely connected with any known family or group of languages.

The Semitic Family

After the Indo-European the most important family of languages historically is the Semitic, to which Arabic belongs. Babylonian, which was the language of an important people in the early history of western Asia, and Hebrew belong to the Semitic family.

INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES
Celtic
Germanic
Latin or Italic
Balto-Slavic
Greek
Albanian
Languages Not Belonging To Indo-European Family
THE LANGUAGES OF EUROPE

QUESTIONS

1. What is a reason for the similarity which may be noticed in French, Spanish, and Italian words of similar meaning?
2. Is there any great similarity between Greek and Latin words? Between Latin and Chinese?
3. What features may the languages which make up a *family* of languages have in common, in addition to a resemblance in words?
4. What is the name of the family of languages which includes our own language and most of those spoken in Europe?
5. Name the different branches or groups which make up this family.
6. Why is the name *Indo-European* given to this family of languages?
7. Which branches are spoken in Asia?
9. What is the most important language of the Indic group? What was originally supposed to be the relation between this language and Latin and Greek? What is now known to be their relation?
9. Where are the countries situated in which the languages of the Persian branch are spoken?
10. Point out on the map (p. 62) the regions in which languages of the Celtic branch are now spoken.
11. Are the Irish and Scotch dialects which are often found in English stories and poems Celtic?
12. Where are nations located whose languages make up the Balto-Slavic group? What is the most important language of this group?
13. Name two Balto-Slavic languages other than Russian, and point out on the map the countries in which they are spoken.
14. Tell what you can of the influence of language groups on the Great War.
15. Where is Lithuania?
16. To what branch of the Indo-European family does the English language belong? What other branch has contributed largely to its present form?
17. What are the Scandinavian languages?
18. What are the two most important forms of modern German?

19. Where is the Dutch language spoken?
20. What language related to Dutch is spoken in part of Belgium?
21. Where is Albania?
22. Name some languages found in Europe which do not belong to the Indo-European family.
23. What are the most important languages of the Semitic family?

CHAPTER VI

THE ARYANS

Words from the Same Source in Indo-European Languages

We find that in the various Indo-European languages many of the words of everyday use have had a common source. The words for 'father,' 'mother,' 'daughter,' 'sheep,' 'dog,' 'bird,' 'winter,' 'wagon,' and many others show this common source. Often these words do not seem at first sight to be very much alike, but the study of many languages has shown what sort of changes in pronunciation takes place, and so it is possible to recognize the relation between words which sound and look quite different. Thus the English word 'father' and the Latin *pater* do not look very much alike. But it has been found that the letter *p* in such languages as Greek and Latin is usually represented by *f* in English, and that *t* is usually represented by *th*. This does not mean that 'father' is derived from *pater*, but that both are derived from an older word in the language from which both English and Latin have come. Those who spoke this older language, as we have seen, are called Aryans. While there are no words of this old language in existence, we can tell by studying the Indo-European languages something of what it was like. Many attempts have been made to find out where the Aryans lived, by examining the words which they appear to have used. Thus, the word which means 'to plow' found in several different Indo-European languages seems to indicate that there was a word with that meaning used by the Aryans, and consequently it is believed that they were an agricultural people. Similarly the appearance in many of the Indo-

European languages of a common word for 'mill' or 'to grind' is evidence that they knew how to make flour or meal from grain. The fact that the word for 'winter' in some languages is the same as 'snow' in others is considered a proof that the home of the Aryans was in a country in which the winters were cold enough for snow. Another proof that they lived in a northern region is thought to be found in the names of some trees which now grow only in northern countries, and which seem to have been known to the Aryans.

Indo-European Languages Spoken by Nations of Different Origin

It must be remembered that the nations which speak Indo-European languages are not all descendants from the original Aryans. We know that many of those who speak Spanish in Mexico and South America are descendants of Indian tribes, or are of mixed race, and that other descendants of some Indian tribes in our own country speak English. When a nation is conquered by another, the language of the conquerors usually becomes the language of the conquered nation. Sometimes, however, the conquerors take up the language of the people whom they have conquered. Thus, when the Normans, who came mostly from Denmark, conquered the northern part of France in the year 911, they learned the French anguage and gradually gave up their own. Usually, however, the language which prevails is that of the conquering nation. We know that some nations which did not originally speak Indo-European languages have been conquered by nations of the Indo-European group. No doubt the same thing happened earlier than the time of which we have any history, and a number of nations that now speak Indo-European languages are descendants of peoples who did not originally speak an Indo-European language.

The Original Home of the Aryans

There are several different theories as to where the Aryans originally lived. Perhaps it will never be possible to know which of these theories is correct.

It was once believed that the Aryans came from central Asia, and that Sanskrit and the other Indo-European languages found in Asia represented the speech of those who remained near the original home. Later the theory was offered that the original home of the Aryans was somewhere near the Baltic Sea. Many now believe that a region north of the Caspian Sea, partly in Europe and partly in Asia, best fits the situation suggested by what we can learn of the early life of this people. Much has been written about them which cannot be proved. We know that the meanings of words have often changed, and in some instances the early meaning of words now found in Indo-European languages may have been different among the Aryans from what it was later. Thus, the word for 'beech-tree' in some of the later languages was the name of the 'oak' in other languages. No doubt there will be additional facts discovered about this old language and the people who spoke it, but it will probably be impossible to prove with certainty just where they came from or how highly civilized they were.

QUESTIONS

1. What are some of the words of the Indo-European languages which have a common source?
2. Mention two changes in sounds illustrated by the English *father* and the Latin *pater*.
3. What is the name commonly given to those who spoke the old form of language from which the Indo-European languages have come?
4. Have any words of the original Indo-European language come down to us?

5. What can we find out from Indo-European languages about the state of civilization of the Aryans and about their original home?

6. Are all the modern nations which speak Indo-European languages descendants of the Aryans?

7. Give some examples of modern nations which have adopted the languages of other nations.

8. What are some of the theories as to where the Aryans originally lived? Why is it difficult to be absolutely sure as to the correctness of any one of these theories?

CHAPTER VII

GREEK AND LATIN

The Classical Languages

Among the older Indo-Europ an languages two which are especially important are Greek and Latin. These are sometimes called the *classical languages*. The word 'classical' is derived from a Latin word which is used to mean 'belonging to the first class.' It is employed especially to refer to books and works of art.

Most books are forgotten within a few years after they are written, but some of the Greek classics which were written more than two thousand years ago are still read. The Latin classics were written about the beginning of the Christian era, some of them more than 1900 years ago, some of them a little later. The nations that produced these literary works were the most highly civilized of the ancient nations, and their languages were spoken more widely than any other in Europe and western Asia. Many of the languages formerly spoken in the countries which were conquered by the Greeks and Romans have entirely disappeared. But there has never been a time since their beginning when some form of Greek and Latin has not been spoken, although they have changed greatly from the form used in what are called classical times, that is, the times in which the great classics were written.

The Extent of the Use of Greek

The Greeks, as we have already seen, were not united under one government, but were divided into a number of independent states. Some of these states had strong fleets and

were able to control the eastern part of the Mediterranean Sea. In fact for a time there was no nation equal to them in naval power. Partly as a result of the influence which grew out of this naval supremacy Greek came to be spoken not only in what is commonly called Greece, but in a number of other regions about the eastern end of the Mediterranean. On the coast of Asia Minor there were several important Greek cities, such as Ephesus, Smyrna, and Miletus. Some of the Greek states sent out colonies to Sicily and southern Italy. So important were these colonies that the southern part of Italy was known as Great Greece, and Greek continued to be spoken there after the country had come under the control of Rome, just as French is still spoken in that part of Canada which was originally settled by the French, although Canada has long since become a part of the British Empire. In Egypt also Greek was the language of the educated class for a long time. After the Romans took control of Egypt, Greek continued to be used even in government affairs. There were some very famous teachers who lived in Athens and in the Greek cities of Asia Minor, and young men from Italy came to these cities to study. This made it necessary for them to know Greek, so that for many years well educated Romans studied Greek just as we study French or Spanish. A number of Roman authors wrote books in Greek, because this language was understood by well educated men in all parts of the civilized world at that time. In fact, it may be said that Greek was a world language, just as French was a world language a few hundred years ago, and as English now seems likely to become.

The modern Greek language is not spoken in so many countries as was ancient Greek. It is the language of Greece, of the islands of the Ionian and Aegean seas, of the coast of Asia Minor, and of a few towns in the interior of Asia Minor. It is also used extensively in Constantinople. Arabic has

taken its place in Egypt, and Italian in southern Italy. As we have seen, the alphabets which are used all over Europe have been derived from the Greek alphabet, and many Greek words have been borrowed by other languages.

The Influence of Greek Literature

The classical literature of Greece has influenced all the later literature of Europe even to our own day. One of the books used in Roman schools in very early times was a Latin translation of a Greek poem. The most important poetical work in Latin literature, Vergil's Aeneid, uses a form of verse which had been used by the Greek poets, and the story is taken from earlier Greek poems. Since the Roman orators studied in Greece, Roman oratory was largely influenced by Greek oratory. This Latin literature in turn was imitated in later times, so that many things in the great literary works of our own language can be traced back to Rome and to Greece.

Latin in Italy

In very early times there were several different languages spoken in Italy. But when the Romans conquered the other cities and states of Italy one by one, the language of the Romans began to spread and the other languages began to disappear, with the exception of Greek, which continued to be spoken in the Greek colonies of southern Italy for a long time. The language of Rome was called Latin from the word *Latium*, which was the name given to the region in which Rome was situated. The Romans did not try to compel the conquered nations to use Latin, so far as we know; but since the other languages had no literature of any importance and since those who spoke them no longer had influence as independent nations, these languages gradually went out of use. We know something of what they were like from inscriptions

which have been found, and the Roman writers occasionally quote words from them. But they had no books, at least none which have come down to us, and they have had no influence of any importance on the languages spoken in later times.

The Spread of Latin

The Romans gradually extended their power beyond Italy until all of southern and western Europe, western Asia, and northern Africa came under their control. Many different languages were spoken in these regions into which the Romans came. But here, as in Italy, Latin began slowly to replace the native languages. One of the causes which helped to bring about this change was the establishment of colonies by the Romans in various parts of the countries which had been conquered. Sometimes these colonies consisted of soldiers who had served their time in the army, and who were given little farms as a sort of pension. They would form communities, living in villages or towns with their families, and working the farms, which were situated about the towns. Since they felt that the native inhabitants living near were inferior to them, they would not make much effort to learn their language. On the other hand, if the natives wished to have any business dealings with the colonists, it would be desirable to know enough Latin to talk with them. Other colonies besides these groups of old soldiers were sometimes established for the purpose of helping keep order in countries that had been conquered. These also helped to make the Latin language known in the region where they were located. Around the camps in which the Roman armies were established small markets sometimes grew up where the inhabitants brought their wares to sell to the soldiers. Since they were anxious to sell, they would naturally make efforts to speak a little Latin. This again

helped to spread a knowledge of the language. On the other hand, Roman traders traveled through these regions, buying various articles from the natives and selling them other articles from Italy. While these traders would no doubt learn something of the native languages, the natives would learn Latin words from them, especially the names of things which were imported.

Another influence which helped to spread a knowledge of Latin was the fact that prominent men from the nations which were conquered often sent their sons to Rome to be educated. These young men would bring back to their native towns a knowledge of Latin, and thus add to the influence of the soldiers and traders in making the language familiar. Since there was no native literature, in most cases, Roman books would attract those who wished to read. In northern Africa Roman towns developed, and from some of these towns came Latin authors whose books are still in existence. In the same way, Spain and Gaul produced a number of Latin authors. Among the Spanish writers in particular are some of the most important of the later Latin authors.

QUESTIONS

1. What are the languages to which the term 'classical languages' is commonly applied?
2. How long ago were the Greek and Latin classical works written?
3. What was true of the organization of the Greek-speaking peoples as regards government?
4. What was an important source of their power?
5. Point out on the map (p. 62) the most important regions where ancient Greek was spoken.
6. What was the name given to southern Italy? Why?
7. What was the situation in Egypt as regards language while the Romans controlled that country?

8. What were some of the educational influences which affected the use of Greek among the Romans?

9. How did Greek literature influence the literature of the Romans?

10. Where is the modern Greek language spoken?

11. What was the situation in Italy in early times as regards languages?

12. Where was Latium?

13. Describe the manner in which Latin came to be the language of Italy.

14. What is our chief source of knowledge of the non-Latin languages which were once spoken in Italy? What has been the influence of these languages on the languages of later times?

15. Describe the influence of the Roman colonies outside of Italy in spreading the use of Latin.

16. What influence in connection with the Roman military camps tended to make Latin known in the countries where the Roman armies were stationed?

17. What classes of Romans in addition to the soldiers brought a knowledge of Latin to various parts of the world which were under Roman control?

18. How did education tend to spread a knowledge of Latin in the Roman provinces?

19. What are some of the proofs as to the extent to which Africa, Spain, and Gaul accepted the Latin language?

CHAPTER VIII

THE ROMANCE LANGUAGES

The Break-Up of the Roman Empire

We have seen how the use of Latin spread over southern and western Europe under the Roman empire. When the uncivilized nations from the north succeeded in destroying the Roman state about 1500 years ago, they drove the Latin language out of some parts of the country where it was established. Thus, in the greater part of what became Austria-Hungary, Latin disappeared, and its place was taken by German and Hungarian, and by Slavic languages. In north Africa, where there had been a well developed Roman civilization, Arabic finally became the chief language.

Differences in Latin of Different Regions

But in a large part of the former Roman world Latin still remained, although it became somewhat changed in form. These different regions in which Latin was spoken no longer had a common government, and they did not have much communication with one another. When groups of people who speak the same language are separated from one another for a time, certain differences grow up between the languages of the different groups. Some words will be lost by one group but kept by another. Perhaps one group will use more care than another in keeping the standard of pronunciation that was formerly regarded as correct. For example, there are certain parts of Canada where French has been spoken ever since the first settlements were made by French colonists, about three hundred years ago. But there are now many differences between French as it is spoken in Canada

and as it is spoken in France. In like manner there came to be differences between the use of Latin in Italy and in the various regions outside of Italy in which Latin was spoken. No doubt these differences were partly due to the character of the languages that had originally been spoken by the nations which had afterwards learned Latin. If a German and a Frenchman learn English, both are likely to have certain peculiarities of pronunciation, but these peculiarities will not be the same. There would probably be some difference between the pronunciation of Latin by a Spaniard and by a native of Switzerland. This difference would grow greater when the people of the two nations no longer had any connection with each other, and finally it would become impossible for one to understand the other. In this way a group of different languages, including some of the most important languages of the modern civilized world, developed from Latin. These are commonly called the Romance languages, a name derived from the same source as the word 'Roman.' Among these Romance languages are French, Provençal, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and Rumanian.

The Literary and the Spoken Forms of Language

It is not quite correct to say that French and the other Romance languages go back to Latin in the form in which we have it in Latin literature. There is always some difference between conversational language and the language of books. In our conversation we sometimes pronounce carelessly, and also there are some words found in books which we do not often use in talking. On the other hand, we use in speaking some slang terms and colloquial expressions, as we call them, which are not often found in books. This difference between the spoken and the written language was greater in ancient times than it is today. The modern newspaper often employs colloquial language, and novels also

illustrate its use. But if we were to compare the conversational language of the average person with the language of one of our most carefully written histories or biographies we should find many words and expressions in which they differed. This would be especially true if we compared the spoken language of an uneducated person with that of such books as have been mentioned above.

The modern Romance languages come from the spoken language of the Romans with its careless pronunciation and its tendency to use some words not found in books and to disregard other words which good writers used. After the fall of the Roman Empire, there were comparatively few well educated persons in the countries where Latin was spoken, as we have already seen. Consequently the better form of the written language had little effect in correcting variations or preventing changes in conversational Latin.

French

French is in many ways the most important of the Romance languages. For a long while it was the language in which public business between the different nations of Europe was carried on, and it is still so used to some extent. It is spoken in parts of Belgium and Switzerland as well as in France and, as has already been said, in part of Canada French-speaking communities are found in Louisiana, including some quarters of the city of New Orleans, and occasionally in some other states. Algeria and Tunis, in northern Africa, are now under control of France, and as a result the French language is coming into use in some of the towns and cities of these countries. In Constantinople, in the more important cities of Egypt, and in many other parts of the eastern world French is used extensively in business dealings. In the island of Hayti a form of French is spoken.

Spanish

Spanish is spoken by a larger number of persons than any other of the Romance languages. It is the language not only of Spain, but also of all of South America, except Brazil, of Central America, of Mexico, and of Cuba. It is still spoken in parts of New Mexico, Arizona, Texas, and southern California. When Porto Rico and the Philippines were annexed by the United States, Spanish was used almost exclusively in Porto Rico and in the more civilized parts of the Philippines. Since the establishment of American schools in these islands, English is coming to take the place of Spanish. There are some differences between the pronunciation of Spanish in Spain and in South America or Mexico, just as there are between the pronunciation of French in France and in Canada. Probably Spanish will gradually go out of use in those parts of the United States where it is now spoken, but it is likely to continue as the language of Mexico and of the South American countries where it is now in use.

Portuguese

Portugal is a small country, and its language, called Portuguese, is used by a smaller number of persons in Europe than French or Spanish. But it is given added importance by the fact that it is also the language of Brazil, the largest country of South America. At one time Brazil was governed by Portugal, and at that time the Portuguese language was established in the cities and the cultivated regions. When the country became independent, Portuguese continued to be the language used. There are, however, some uncivilized Indian tribes in the interior of the country who use their own language, just as there are also some Indian tribes in the Spanish-speaking countries of South America and Mexico who do not speak Spanish.

Italian

Italian is spoken in what was the home of the Latin language, from which all the Romance languages have come, and so we should expect it to resemble Latin more closely than the other Romance languages do. Many changes, however, have taken place, although we can easily see the relation between Latin and Italian. Before the beginning of the Great War there were some districts in the Austrian Empire in which Italian was spoken, and which the Italians wished to have united with the rest of Italy. This was one of the reasons which led Italy to enter the war. Tripoli in northern Africa was taken from Turkey by Italy a few years before the Great War, and many Italians have since then gone to that country. If Italy continues to hold control, Italian will probably come to be spoken in Tripoli, as French is coming to be spoken in Algeria and Tunis.

Rumanian

Rumania is separated from the other countries in which the Romance languages are found, and it seems a little strange that Latin should have left its influence here. But there is no doubt that Rumanian is a descendant of Latin, although it has changed the original forms more than Italian or French or Spanish. Under the Roman Empire there were garrisons of Roman soldiers and Roman colonies located in what is now Rumania, and when the barbarians drove the Romans out of this region the language still continued to be spoken at some points in the Balkans or along the Danube. Before the Great War there was a district in southern Russia and also a part of Hungary in which Rumanian was spoken. As in the case of Italy, the wish to unite these groups speaking the same language was one of the causes that led Rumania to enter the war.

Other Romance Languages

Provençal is spoken in large areas of southern France, although most of the inhabitants of that region speak French also. There are numerous books in Provençal and some magazines.

The inhabitants of the northeastern part of Spain speak a Romance language called Catalan which differs considerably from Spanish. Catalan is also spoken in a part of France across the Pyrenees from the Spanish region in which it is spoken.

The language spoken in that part of Belgium in which Flemish is not used is sometimes called Walloon. It is merely a dialect of French, but it has a small literature of its own. The educated classes of this region speak French, though many of them are familiar with Walloon also.

A Romance language, commonly called Rumansh, is spoken in the eastern part of Switzerland and the adjoining region of Austria.

The Form of Latin and Romance Words

The following table, giving the numbers from one to ten in Latin and in the more important Romance languages, will show how close is the relation between their words and Latin.

Latin	*Italian*	*French*	*Spanish*	*Portuguese*	*Rumanian*	*English*
unus	uno	un	uno	um	un	*one*
duo	due	deux	dos	dois	doi	*two*
tres	tre	trois	tres	trez	trei	*three*
quattuor	quattro	quatre	cuatro	quatro	patru	*four*
quinque	cinque	cinq	cinco	cinco	cinci	*five*
sex	sei	six	seis	seis	sesse	*six*
septem	sette	sept	siete	sete	septe	*seven*
octo	otto	huit	ocho	oito	opt	*eight*
novem	nove	neuf	nueve	nove	noua	*nine*
decem	dieci	dix	diez	dez	zece	*ten*

QUESTIONS

1. How did the fall of the Roman Empire affect the language situation in southern and western Europe and northern Africa?
2. What are some of the languages which replaced Latin in parts of Europe? What language replaced it in northern Africa?
3. How did the breaking up of the Roman Empire affect the language of the different regions where Latin was still spoken?
4. What would probably cause a difference in the pronunciation of Latin as it was first learned in different parts of the world?
5. What name is commonly given to the group of modern languages which are derived from Latin? What is the origin of this name?
6. In what parts of Europe is French spoken?
7. Where are the French-speaking regions or communities to be found in North America?
8. What has brought about the introduction of French in northern Africa?
9. Where is Spanish spoken? How does the number of persons speaking Spanish compare with the number speaking other languages derived from Latin?
10. Is the form of Spanish exactly the same in America as in Spain?
11. Where is Portugal? In what country of South America is Portuguese spoken?
12. Which of the Romance languages is spoken in the original home of the Latin language?
13. How did the language situation in Europe affect Italy in regard to the Great War?
14. In what part of Africa is Italian coming to be used to some extent?
15. Where is Rumania? What is the character of its language?
16. How was the Latin language brought to the region which is now Rumania?
17. Where is Provençal spoken?
18. What is the name of the French dialect which is spoken in part of Belgium?
19. Where is Catalan spoken? Rumansh?

CHAPTER IX

GERMANIC AND LATIN ELEMENTS IN ENGLISH

The English Vocabulary

The English language belongs to the Germanic group of the Indo-European languages, as is shown in the table on page 55. It is called Germanic because a majority of the words most commonly used, such as 'the,' 'this,' 'that,' 'may,' 'might,' 'will,' 'go,' 'be,' are of Anglo-Saxon, that is, of Germanic, origin, and also because its inflections are Germanic, as seen, for example, in the past tenses of verbs and the possessive (genitive) case of nouns.

But if we examine the words in an English dictionary, we shall find that less than half of them are Germanic in origin. English is really a composite language, that is, it is made up of material from many different sources. All languages, it is true, borrow more or less from other languages, but few have so large a proportion of borrowed material as English. The largest proportion of the words which are not Germanic are of Latin origin. English differs from the rest of the Germanic group in that so large a part of its vocabulary is taken from the Romance languages.

The Angles and Saxons

The Germanic element in English is derived from the language of a group of German tribes which came to England about the year 450 A. D. It is said that the most important part of these people came in 449 A. D., but probably some had come earlier, and doubtless they continued to cross from the mainland of Europe for a number of years. These invaders are said to have belonged to three different tribes, the

most important of which were the Angles and the Saxons, and the civilization and language which they developed is known as Anglo-Saxon. The words 'England' and 'Anglicize' are derived from the name of the Angles, who apparently were more numerous than the other tribes and occupied a more extensive territory. There are certain districts in England today which are named from the Saxons. These are Essex, Wessex, Sussex, and Middlesex, which meant originally the countries of the East Saxons, West Saxons, South Saxons, and Middle Saxons. We cannot be quite sure what part of western Europe these people came from, but it is probable that they lived along the coast of Holland and that part of the German coast which lies just east of Holland. The later inhabitants of this region were called Frisians, and the language which is still spoken in some places along the coast resembles the English. The language spoken by the Angles and Saxons resembled the Low German more than the High German, which is taught in schools and which is found in most German books.

The Early Celtic Inhabitants of Great Britain

The people who were living in England when the Angles and Saxons arrived were called Britons. They spoke a Celtic language, something like that which was spoken in France before the conquest of that country by the Romans. Apparently the Angles and Saxons drove the Britons into the hilly and mountainous region of the west, where they united with the tribes in Wales. At any rate, this part of Great Britain has continued to use a Celtic form of speech.

The language of the Angles and Saxons was not much influenced by that of the early Britons. Perhaps not more than half a dozen English words have come from that source, and these are mainly words which are not very familiar to us. A number of other Celtic words were, however, borrowed

in later times from Welsh, Irish, and Scotch. Among these are 'bard,' 'druid,' 'plaid,' 'whisky,' 'shamrock.'

The Danish Invasion

But there was another influence which was more important in its effect on the early form of the language. This was the language of the Scandinavians, who came to England about four hundred years later than the Angles and Saxons. At first these newcomers were merely groups of pirates, who plundered the settlements along the coast and carried away the booty which they found. Later they began to seize parts of the country as a place for their homes, and finally they conquered from the Anglo-Saxons nearly two-thirds of what is now England. The Anglo-Saxons who had driven out the Britons were now in turn forced to yield to a stronger nation. The Scandinavian invaders were commonly spoken of as Danes by the people of England, but it is quite certain that many of them came from Norway. Their language was a Germanic language, like that of the people whom they defeated, and many words were much alike in the languages of the Danes and the Anglo-Saxons. We can trace in modern English many words which have been taken from this Danish or Scandinavian source although these words sometimes closely resemble words which were in the language spoken by the earlier Germanic conquerors. Such common words as 'husband,' 'sky,' 'wing,' 'root,' 'skill,' 'auger,' 'meek,' 'happy,' 'die,' 'call,' 'want,' 'scare,' and a great many others of the same kind are of Scandinavian origin.

The Latin of the First Period

We have seen that the Latin element in English is so large as to make English closely related in vocabulary to the Romance languages. This Latin element did not all develop at one time or as a result of any one event in history. It

is customary to recognize four different periods in the history of the growth of the Latin element in English.

First, the Romans had conquered England and part of Scotland several hundred years before the coming of the Angles and Saxons. They had established garrisons of soldiers in several places and had begun to introduce Roman civilization. In the southern part of Scotland they had built a great wall to keep back the wild mountain tribes of the north. In some of the cities the Latin language was coming to be used, and no doubt we should have had a Romance language, something like French or Spanish, which would have replaced the original Celtic language of the Britons, if the Romans had not abandoned the island. But the Roman armies were needed elsewhere, and before the coming of the Angles and Saxons the last Roman garrison had been withdrawn. The Roman influence on the Celtic language of the inhabitants seems to have died out to a large extent, but we have so little left of the early Celtic language that it is not easy to know just how far it was coming to be affected by the Latin. A small group of Latin words which have come down to us from this Roman occupation makes up the Latin of the First Period. The last syllable of 'Lincoln' is from the Latin *colonia*, a colony. 'Portsmouth' is from *portus*, a harbor, 'Stratford' is from *strata*, a street or road, and such words as 'Chester,' 'Dorchester,' 'Manchester,' 'Lancaster,' and others ending in *-chester* or *-caster* are commonly believed to be derived from Latin *castra*, a camp.

The Latin of the Second Period

Second, about the year 600 a group of Christian missionaries came to England, and as a result of their preaching, Christianity was adopted as the religion of the island. Latin was the official language of the church, and many Latin words which were used in connection with religious affairs

were brought into the language at this time. Many of these were originally Greek, but they had been taken into Latin and were introduced into English from Latin. Such are 'bishop,' 'monk,' 'priest,' 'clerk.' Perhaps the Anglo-Saxons may have brought over with them a few Latin words which they had learned long before they were Christianized. I is possible that 'church' may have been introduced in this way. The words introduced at this time make what is called the Latin of the Second Period. Their total number is estimated at over six hundred.

The Latin of the Third Period

The Latin of the Third Period is that which came through the Norman-French. This is of very much more importance than the two earlier groups.

The Normans defeated the Anglo-Saxons at the Battle of Hastings in the year 1066. This event changed the whole course of English history and the character of the language. But for this Norman conquest we should be speaking a language quite different both in pronunciation and vocabulary from that which we now have. Most of the Normans had originally come from Denmark and had settled in nofrthern France, as we have seen There they had adopted the French language, which had developed from Latin, as has before been shown. But there were some differences between the French of the Normans and that of the inhabitants of central France, and so the form of speech which was brought to England by the Normans was not quite the same as that which was spoken in Paris and which afterward became the standard language of France.

We have seen that when the Anglo-Saxons invaded England the language of the Britons disappeared from the part of the country which was occupied by the invaders. The Norman-French did not drive out the language of the Anglo-

Saxons in the same way. Perhaps they were too few in number, or were less barbarous in their treatment of those whom they had defeated. For a long time the conquering Normans and their families, that is, the governing classes, spoke French, while Anglo-Saxon continued to be the language of the subject people, the earlier inhabitants. But those who spoke the native language would naturally learn many French words because they would try to imitate the rulers of the country. In this way the language of the people gradually changed by the addition of many new words and by the disappearance of some of the old words.

Often words from the two languages with the same or nearly the same meanings were kept. Thus we have such pairs of words as 'yearly' and 'annual,' 'buy' and 'purchase,' 'answer' and 'reply,' 'begin' and 'commence,' 'will' and 'testament.' The first of each of these pairs is of Anglo-Saxon origin and the second is French. Writers and speakers often use pairs of synonyms, one Anglo-Saxon and the other Norman-French for the purpose of making an idea clearer or more impressive. Thus in the pairs of words 'acknowledge' and 'confess,' 'forgive' and 'pardon,' 'help' and 'assist' the first is of Anglo-Saxon origin and the second from Latin or French. Sometimes pairs of words are kept which originally had the same meaning, but which have come to be used in slightly different senses. Thus 'deep' and 'profound,' 'lonely' and 'solitary,' 'hearty' and 'cordial.' While these words may sometimes have the same meaning, each is used in some connections in which the other would not do. We might say 'a deep silence' or 'a profound silence,' but we should not speak of 'a profound river.'

A number of animals are called by names of Anglo-Saxon origin, while the names given to their flesh when served as food are French. Thus 'ox,' 'calf,' 'sheep,' 'swine,' 'deer' are Anglo-Saxon, while 'beef,' 'veal,' 'mutton,' 'pork,' 'venison'

are French. Many words which refer to government are French, because it was the Normans who had charge of the affairs of government. Among these are 'state,' 'government,' 'sovereign,' 'council,' 'govern,' 'reign.' From the same source are 'parliament,' 'authority,' 'country,' 'people.' Since the army was organized and directed by the conquerors, most words relating to military affairs were taken from the French. Such are 'peace,' 'battle,' 'arms,' 'army,' 'soldier,' 'banner,' 'castle,' 'lance,' 'navy,' and many others.

Another large group of words taken from the French at this time consists of words referring to law and the courts. 'Judge,' 'jury,' 'attorney,' 'crime,' 'penalty,' 'property' are of this class.

Sometimes we get two words from the same original Latin word, one having come through Norman-French, the other directly from Latin. An example is seen in 'sure' and 'secure,' both of which are from Latin *sēcūrus*, the first coming through French, the other direct. Sometimes we have pairs of words, one of which is taken from an old French form, the other from a later form. Thus 'frail' and 'fragile' are both from French, and both go back to Latin *fragilis*. The first was an old word which came down in conversational use; the second was introduced later from the literary language.

The Latin of the Fourth Period

The Latin of the Fourth Period consists of the large number of words which have been borrowed from Latin since the latter part of the 15th century. The tendency to increase the use of Latin at that time was caused by an important event in European history which is called the Revival of Learning, or the Renaissance (also spelled Renascence). Before this time the barbarians had overrun Italy, and the Roman and Greek schools had disappeared. Very few men could read the old Greek classics, and some of the Roman

classics were almost forgotten. But at this time a few men in Italy and other parts of Europe began to study these old books again. They found that they were very interesting and valuable, and they hunted for additional books wherever they were to be found. The desire to read and to know more of the thoughts of the great writers of earlier times spread, and an interest in education was aroused. Everyone who wished to become educated studied Greek and Latin.

An important event which from its indirect results added to the interest in learning throughout the western part of Europe at this time was the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in the year 1453. The language spoken in this city was Greek, and there were many well educated men among its inhabitants. When the Turks came, some of these men fled to other parts of Europe, where they became the teachers of those who were interested in the revival of learning.

Following this revival of interest in Latin and Greek literature a great many Latin words found their way into all the languages of Europe, including English. Some of these afterward dropped out of use, but great numbers of words which we now employ familiarly came into English in this way. Examples of these are 'irritate,' 'excite,' 'ignorance,' 'item,' 'opinion,' 'pauper,' 'separate.' Ever since the Renaissance we have continued to add to our vocabulary words from this source. Most scientific terms and the names of new inventions come either from Latin or Greek. The words 'submarine,' 'telephone,' 'tractor,' and 'phonograph' are from this source. It is this Latin and Greek element in our language which has displayed the most vigorous life in recent centuries. We shall see later how word endings from Latin and Greek have come to be used in forming new English words.

QUESTIONS

1. To which branch of the Indo-European family does English belong?
2. What facts cause it to be classed with this group?
3. From what two main sources have most English words come?
4. From what source is the Germanic element in English chiefly derived? At what date did the main Germanic influence in England begin?
5. What is the source of the word *England?*
6. What are some English place names which suggest the influence of the Saxons?
7. From what part of the mainland of Europe are the Germanic tribes which first invaded England supposed to have come?
8. Who were the inhabitants of England before the coming of the Angles and Saxons?
9. To what branch of the Indo-European languages did their language belong?
10. To what extent did the language of the Britons influence the language of the Angles and Saxons?
11. What was the first important influence which modified the language of the Angles and Saxons?
12. Describe the coming of the conquerors from the north. What was the character of their language?
13. How many different periods in the history of the growth of the Latin in English are commonly recognized?
14. What is the source of the Latin of the First Period? What are some examples?
15. Comment on the source and character of the Latin of the Second Period. What are some examples?
16. What important battle was connected with the introduction of the Latin of the Third Period? What was the date of this battle?
17. Who were the Normans? Is the standard modern form of the French language derived from Norman French?
18. What was the language situation in England immediately after the Norman conquest of England?
19. What influences would tend to spread a knowledge of French among those who originally spoke Anglo-Saxon?

20. Give some examples of pairs of words of the same meaning, one being Germanic and the other French in origin.

21. Illustrate the use of Germanic names for animals with French names for their flesh when used for food.

22. From what source do most of our words which refer to government come? Give examples.

23. Name two other classes of words which have been chiefly derived from Norman French.

24. What is the Latin of the Fourth Period?

25. What was the Renaissance? Tell what you can of its beginning.

26. What important historical event of the 15th century helped to spread the influence of Greek learning throughout western Europe? Why?

27. Illustrate the importance of Latin and Greek in the formation of new words in English in recent times.

CHAPTER X

BORROWED WORDS

In addition to the large part of our vocabulary which has come from Germanic and from Latin sources, we have many words taken from other languages. Part of these words have been introduced as the names of articles with which we first became acquainted through the nations from whose languages we derived the words. Some of these words are not very familiar or often used. But many quite common words have come from languages which we do not think of as of much importance to us.

From the languages of the American Indians we have 'chocolate,' 'potato,' 'tomato,' and 'tobacco.' These articles were not known in Europe until after the discovery of America. Some of these words were first learned by the Spanish from the Indians, and undoubtedly the pronunciation was somewhat changed from that of the Indians. Other Indian words are 'hammock,' 'canoe,' 'moccasin,' 'tomahawk,' 'wigwam,' 'squaw,' 'tapioca,' 'opossum,' 'raccoon,' 'cannibal.' Some of these are from the languages of tribes in South America, Mexico, or the West Indies.

We have a large number of Spanish words, some of them going back to the discovery of America or earlier, others having been adopted from the Mexicans or the Spanish-speaking people of the Southwest. Among them are 'alligator,' 'mosquito,' 'negro,' 'tornado,' 'cargo,' 'desperado,' 'armada.' 'Mesa,' meaning literally a table (Latin *mēnsa*) is a word used in the southwestern states as a name for a table-land; that is, a level stretch of upland. A number of other words somewhat less well known than those given above have also come from the Spanish.

From Portuguese we have 'palaver,' 'marmalade,' and 'molasses.' These were derived from Latin by the Portuguese. 'Cobra,' the name of a venomous snake of India, is of the same origin.

'Tea' is a Chinese word, as are also the names of certain kinds or brands of tea. 'Joss,' meaning a Chinese idol, was probably originally derived by the Chinese from a Portuguese word.

A few words have come from modern German. Among these are 'plunder,' 'poodle,' 'meerschaum,' 'nickel,' and a few terms used in geology. 'Loafer' is sometimes thought to be from this source.

A number of words have come from Hebrew, as a result of their use in the English version of the Bible. Such are 'amen,' 'cherub,' 'jubilee,' hallelujah,' 'leviathan,' 'manna,' 'Sabbath,' 'Satan.' Possibly 'cinnamon,' and 'cabal,'[1] are from the same source.

Names of animals frequently come from the languages of the tribes inhabiting the regions where the animals are first found by travelers from civilized countries. Thus, 'chimpanzee,' 'gorilla,' 'zebra' are from the languages of African tribes. Probably 'kangaroo' is a native Australian word. Some words of this sort from the languages of the American Indians have been given above.

'Amber,' 'arsenal,' 'coffee,' 'cotton,' 'mattress,' 'sofa,' and 'sirup' are among the words which have come from Arabic. 'Alcohol,' 'alcove,' 'algebra,' and 'alkali' are from the same source. The 'al' in these words is the Arabic word for 'the.'

From languages spoken in India we have 'bungalow,' 'jungle,' 'loot,' 'punch' (a drink), and 'shampoo.'

Of Persian origin are 'bazaar,' 'caravan,' 'chess,' 'lilac,' 'paradise,' and 'shawl.'

[1]It has sometimes been said that this word comes from the initials of the names of a group of men who controlled affairs in England at one time, but this is not the case.

'Boomerang,' like 'kangaroo,' is probably an Australian word.

A few words referring to boats or sea life are from Dutch. Of this class are 'sloop,' 'yacht,' 'yawl,' and 'skipper.'

We have a very large number of words from Italian. Among these are many referring to music. Such are 'opera,' 'oratorio,' 'alto,' 'soprano,' 'tenor,' 'piano,' 'trombone,' and a great many technical terms in music, such as 'allegretto,' 'andante,' 'moderato,' 'lento,' 'crescendo,' 'diminuendo.' Other words of Italian origin are 'balcony,' 'cornice,' 'portico,' 'fresco,' 'piazza,' 'terra cotta,' 'volcano.' These are only a few of the large number of our words which are Italian in origin.

The borrowing of words by other languages besides English is illustrated by the fact that there are many words of French origin to be found in German, and some words from Germanic sources are to be found in all the Romance languages. Occasionally modern English words are taken into foreign languages. Recently, 'box,' meaning to fight skilfully with the fists, and 'beefsteak' have come into use in French.

QUESTIONS

1. What are some of the words which we have borrowed from the languages of the American Indians?
2. What are some of the ways in which Spanish words have been brought into our language?
3. What is a *mesa?* Explain the origin of the word.
4. Give other examples of Spanish words in English.
5. What are some English words of Portuguese origin?
6. How are the English names of animals frequently derived?
7. Give examples of words which come from Arabic; from the languages of India.
8. What is an important class of words which have come from Italian? Give some words of this class.
9. Find other examples of English words from Italian, in addition to those given in the text.

CHAPTER XI

THE SOUNDS OF SPOKEN LANGUAGE

How Speech Sounds Are Made

The sounds of spoken language are made by the organs of the mouth and throat and the lungs. We learn to make the sounds of the words of our own language by trying to imitate the speech of those about us, and ordinarily we do not think of the manner in which we accomplish this. But we can study the position of the vocal organs for the production of various sounds, and by so doing we can more easily correct errors in our pronunciation or learn the sounds of a foreign language.

The Larynx: The Vocal Cords

If one holds his hand on his throat while he is talking, he will feel a vibration in connection with certain sounds. This vibration is not felt when one whispers, and if he pronounces the sounds (not the names) of various letters of the alphabet, he finds that some cause vibration and others do not. Thus in giving the sounds of *v* and *f*, as heard in 'vine' and 'fine,' one notices that the sound of *v* causes vibration and that of *f* does not. Just back of the point where the "Adam's apple" is seen in a man's throat there is located a very important organ of speech in connection with which these sounds that give vibration are produced. This is an irregular shaped box-like space called the *larynx*, across the top of which are two elastic folds of membrane called the *vocal cords*. Air is forced into the larynx from the lungs, and when the vocal cords are relaxed the air passes through without any noise. This is the condition in ordinary breathing. But if one wishes

he can draw in the vocal cords a little from the sides and thus narrow the passage for the air.

1. The vocal cords drawn back for quiet breathing.
2. The vocal cords in a whisper.
3. The vocal cords when vibrating their full length.
4. The vocal cords when vibrating half their length.

Note: The sound produced by 4 is an octave higher than that produced by 3.

Voiced and Voiceless Sounds

We know that when the wind blows through a very narrow crack it makes a whistling or hissing noise. When the

space through which the air must pass from the larynx is slightly narrowed the breath makes a sound which may be that of *h* or it may be what we call a wheezing noise.

But if the space is narrowed still more, the air sets the vocal cords to vibrating, and voice is produced as a result. A sound which is produced with the vibration of the vocal cords is called a *voiced sound*. A sound without the vibration of the vocal cords, such as that of *f*, *p*, *t*, *k*, is called a *voiceless sound*.

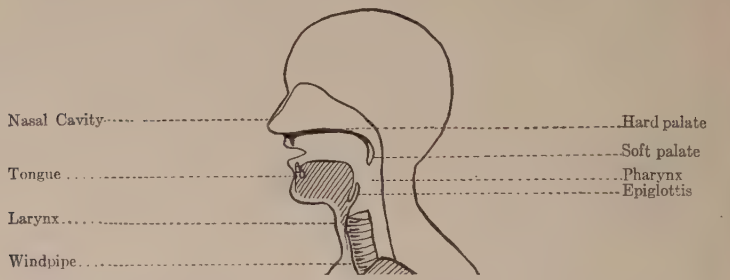
The Hard Palate: The Velum, or Soft Palate

If one moves the tip of his tongue gradually backward along the roof of his mouth, he finds that there is a ridge just back of the teeth, then a region which is firm, and finally toward the back of the mouth a part which is soft, yielding to the pressure of the tongue. The ridge back of the teeth is called the *alveolar ridge*, the firm part of the roof of the mouth is called the *hard palate*, and the soft area back of this is the *velum*, or *soft palate*. The velum is a sort of flap, which, when drawn back, may shut off the air from passing through the nose, or, when hanging loose, may allow the air to pass through the nose and mouth. The lower part of the velum consists of a fleshy projection shaped something like a *v*, which can easily be seen when a mirror is held before one's mouth. This is called the *uvula*. The sounds made by the vocal cords are modified by various changes in the position of the tongue or the other parts of the mouth or throat, and in this way the sounds which make words are produced. We shall see just how various classes of sounds result from different positions of the vocal organs.

Consonants

There are certain letters of the alphabet which do not when used alone make separate words or syllables. Thus we

should never use *b* or *k* to represent a word or syllable except in connection with some other letter. Letters of this sort are called *consonants*. We shall see later some uses of a few consonants to which this statement does not seem to apply fully, but it will serve to distinguish the classes of letters as they are usually referred to. The consonants



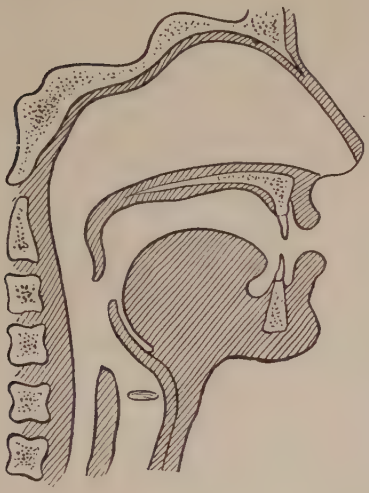
are divided into several classes according to the manner in which their sounds are made.

Stops and Nasals

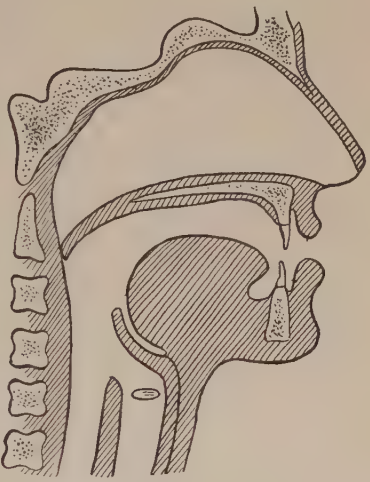
When we pronounce the word 'at,' we shut off or stop the passage of the breath for a moment as we bring the point of the tongue against the alveolar ridge, in making the sound of *t*. In the same way in pronouncing 'had' we stop the passage of breath for an instant in sounding *d*. The name *stop* is given to a consonant the sound of which requires for its utterance the shutting off of the passage of breath in this way.

There is another group of sounds called *nasals* which may be studied together with the stops. In pronouncing the word 'him' we stop the passage of breath from the mouth by bringing the lips together at the end of the word, but we allow it to continue through the nose. The velum, which shuts off

the passage of air and sound through the nose when we pronounce such a sound as that of *b* or *d*, is relaxed in the pronunciation of the *m* sound, and the breath and sound are allowed to pass through the nose.



SHOWING THE SOFT PALATE HANGING NATURALLY, SO AS TO PERMIT SOUND TO PASS INTO THE NASAL CAVITY



SHOWING THE SOFT PALATE ACTING AS A DAMPER TO SHUT SOUND OUT OF THE NASAL CAVITY AND CAUSE IT ALL TO PASS OUT OF THE MOUTH

The stop sounds are those of *b*, *p*, *d*, *t*, *g*, and *k* (*c*, *q*). The nasal sounds are those of *m*, *n*, and *ng*.

1. For the sound of *b* the lips are brought together, and the vocal cords are made to vibrate. It is therefore a voiced sound. Sounds which are made by bringing the lips together are sometimes called *bilabials*, that is, made with the two lips. The sound of *p* is voiceless, and corresponds to *b* in the position of the lips, while *m* represents the nasal of the same

group. We therefore have a voiced bilabial stop (*b*), a voiceless bilabial stop (*p*), and a bilabial nasal (*m*).

2. The sound of *d* is made by bringing the point of the tongue against the alveolar ridge back of the teeth and giving vibration to the vocal cords. The sound produced without voice with the tongue in this position is that of *t*. The nasal sound made by keeping the tongue in this position and allowing the sound to pass through the nose is that of *n*. The sounds of *d* and *t* are sometimes called *point stops* from the part of the tongue used in making them.

3. When we pronounce the word 'big' the passage of breath is shut off at the end of the word by the contact between the surface of the tongue and the hard palate. In the word 'bog' the point of contact is farther back, and we might feel a little uncertain as to whether the tongue was touching the soft palate or the back part of the hard palate. We may call the sound a voiced *palatal* in any case. The voiceless palatal sound is that of *k*, and like that of *g* it varies somewhat as to its position. When we allow the sound to pass through the nose while the tongue is in the position for the palatal stops, we get the nasal *ng*, as heard in 'bring.'

Continuants

There is another group of consonants whose sounds are made without complete interruption of the passage of breath. Thus the sound of *v* in 'give' is made by the breath passing between the teeth and the lower lip, and the sound may be continued for some time; in fact it may be kept going until one runs out of breath. The sounds of the stops, on the other hand, are instantaneous, like an explosion. If one compares the sounds of *d* and *v* in 'deal' and 'veal' he sees that the sound of the first cannot be prolonged. An effort to do so either produces a stuttering repetition, or else gives no sound at all. On the other hand *v* in 'veal' can be drawn out indefinitely.

The consonants whose sounds can be thus prolonged are sometimes called *continuants*. We may describe them as being made or accompanied by the friction of the air against the organs of the mouth. When the water running through a rubber hose under pressure escapes from the opening, a hissing sound is made by the friction of the water against the sides of the opening. In the same manner the sound of *s* in 'see' and *th* in 'thin' are caused entirely by the friction of air against the sides of the narrow passage in the mouth when the tongue is brought near the teeth or the roof of the mouth. In the case of such sounds as *v* and *z* the vocal cords vibrate, but the sound is modified by being forced through the narrow passage described above.

The nasals are continuants, since they can be prolonged. But we have taken them with the stops because the passage of sound through the mouth is stopped in their utterance, and because they can conveniently be grouped with the stops which are sounded with the lips and tongue in the same position as that required for the nasals.

1. In the word 'wit' the sound of *w* is made by rounding the lips, leaving an opening through which the sound can pass. Since the lips are employed in modifying the sound of the vocal cords in the case of this consonant, *w* is sometimes called a *bilabial continuant*. The sound given to *wh* in 'which,' 'when,' and similar words as they are commonly pronounced is that of voiceless *w*.

2. In the word 'veal' the sound of *v* is a voiced continuant formed by bringing the lower lip against the teeth. The voiceless continuant formed with the lip and teeth in the same position is the sound of *f* in 'feel.' These sounds are called *labio-dentals*, from the Latin words meaning 'lip' and 'teeth.' If the lips are brought nearer together than the usual position for *w*, but not quite closed sufficiently for the sound of *b*, a sound very similar to *v* is produced. This is not a

sound heard in correctly spoken English, but it is found in some other languages. In Dickens's *Pickwick Papers*, the *v* which is used for *w* in the speeches of Sam Weller represents this sound.

3. When the tongue is placed against the back of the teeth and the breath allowed to escape between the teeth the sound of *th* as in 'this' is produced if the vocal cords vibrate and the sound of *th* as in 'thin' if they do not vibrate. These two sounds are true consonant sounds, just as much as those of *b* or *f*, and in Old English there were special letters to represent them. It is a pity that we did not keep these letters instead of coming to use a combination of two letters in place of them. These sounds may be called the *dental continuants*.

4. When the tip of the tongue is raised toward the alveolar ridge and the breath forced through the narrow passage thus formed, a buzzing sound (that of *z*) is produced, if the sound is voiced, and a hissing sound (that of *s* in 'see') is produced if there is no voice. This unvoiced sound is sometimes called a *sibilant*. The two sounds may be called the *front alveolar continuants*.

5. Another pair of sounds is formed a little farther back in the mouth than the sounds of *z* and *s*, with the front part of the tongue flattened and brought near the edge of the hard palate. The voiced sound produced with the breath passing through the narrow opening left by this position of the tongue may be represented by *zh*. It is the sound of *s* at the beginning of the second syllable of 'pleasure.' The voiceless sound produced in this position is that of *sh* in 'she.' These sounds may be called the *back alveolar continuants*.

6. The sound of *y* in 'yes' is made near the front of the hard palate. The tongue is brought rather close to the roof of the mouth, a little farther back than for the sounds of *zh* and *sh*. The position of the tongue is nearly the same as that for *ee* in 'feet.'

7. The sound of *l* is made by bringing the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge and allowing the sound to escape at the sides of the tongue, or, in English, more commonly at one side only, the other side being kept in contact with the gums or with the gums and teeth. In some languages the tongue is made to touch the teeth.

8. The sound of *r* is made by curling the tip of the tongue back toward the roof of the mouth and allowing the breath to pass through the opening. One side of the tongue usually touches the gums or the hard palate, and sometimes the sides of the tongue are also turned up to some extent. In England and in the southern and eastern parts of the United States *r* is commonly silent at the end of a word or when followed by a consonant.[1] Throughout the central and western parts of the United States it is usually sounded in any position in a word, but it is more clearly heard in some words or in some positions in a word than in others. In some languages *r* is trilled, that is, the tip of the tongue is made to vibrate rapidly as the letter is sounded. There is also in certain languages a sound of *r* which is made with the uvula instead of the tongue. This sound, which is common in French, is usually difficult for those whose native speech is English.[2]

The consonants *l* and *r* are sometimes called *liquids*. In English and most other languages they combine so readily with a preceding stop or with *f* that they seem to "flow" into these sounds. Thus in 'blow' the time taken for *bl* is scarcely more than that for a single consonant.

9. The sound of *h* is produced by narrowing the space between the vocal cords, and forcing the breath through this narrow passage. But the *h* is modified somewhat by the

[1] In England and in the eastern part of the United States *r* at the end of a word is commonly sounded if the next word begins with a vowel.

[2] In parts of France the *r* is trilled, and this pronunciation is taught in some American schools.

vowel sound which follows it. Thus, in pronouncing 'hold' the mouth is in the position for *o* when the *h* is sounded. Similarly in pronouncing 'he' the *h* is sounded with the mouth in position for *e*, and consequently the air which is forced from the lungs strikes the roof of the mouth or the throat at different points in the two words.

Vowels and Diphthongs

As has already been explained, in the production of the sounds represented by consonants the passage of breath from the mouth is either shut off or else the breath is forced to pass through so narrow an opening that sound is produced or modified by the friction of the air. But if we pronounce 'ah' there is no contact between any of the organs of the mouth, and the sound and breath are allowed to pass out freely. In the same manner the sound of *o* in 'go' and that of *e* in 'me' are not checked by the lips or tongue. But these sounds differ from each other because the tongue and lips are in somewhat different positions while they are being uttered. Such sounds as those illustrated by 'ah' and by the *o* of 'go' and the *ee* of 'see' are called *vowel* sounds. The vowels are regularly the essential parts of syllables or words.

As an apparent exception to this last statement, the sounds of *l*, *m*, and *n* are sometimes said to combine with other consonants to make syllables, without the aid of a vowel sound, as for example in 'people,' 'custom,' 'loosen.' The pronunciation of the syllables containing these letters in the words given above is then represented by *pl*, *tm*, *sn*. When *r* is given the sound which it has outside the southern states and part of the eastern states, it also is regarded as having the power to represent the main part of a syllable, as in 'enter,' with the last syllable pronounced *tr*.

When thus used the letters *l*, *m*, *n*, *r* are referred to as *syllabic l, m, n r*. However, many persons pronounce a vowel

something like *u* in 'upon' in connection with these letters in such words as those given above.

The vowels of the English alphabet are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and *y*. But as we shall see, vowel sounds are often represented by doubling or combining these letters, and a single letter sometimes represents a combination of sounds.

Unrounded Vowels

1. When we pronounce the word 'me' we notice that the vowel sound represented by *e* is made with the tongue rather close to the roof of the mouth. The passage for breath is not made narrow enough to produce a consonant sound, but nevertheless it is narrower than for other vowels. We may therefore say that *e* represents a *close* vowel sound. If we prolong the sound, *e-e-e*, we shall notice that the tongue is pushed forward into the front part of the mouth, and that the sound seems to be formed just back of the alveolar ridge. It is therefore called a *front* vowel sound.

2. The sound represented by *i* in 'tip' is also made near the front of the mouth, as we can see by repeating carefully the first part, *ti-* giving it the same sound as it has in 'tip.' But the tongue is rather lax in the utterance of this sound, while it was held much more firmly in position for the pronunciation of *e* in 'me.' Also, the opening between the tongue and the roof of the mouth gives freer passage for the breath in the pronunciation of the vowel of 'tip' than in that of 'me.' Hence we say this sound of *i* is more *open* than that of *e*.

3. Another sound which is made at a position not far from that of *i* in 'tip' is that heard in the first syllable of 'able.' In such words as 'made' there is usually a combination of two sounds (*ei*), and this combination is much more common than the simple sound. If one pronounces 'made' slowly he can feel the change in the position of his tongue while *a* is being sounded. In dictionaries the sound of *a* is marked the same

in 'able' as in 'made' and similar words. This is not quite accurate, as we have seen, but it serves to indicate the pronunciation well enough for practical purposes.

4. In the word 'met' the vowel sound is formed with the tongue a little farther back than that of *a* in 'able.' It is made with the middle of the tongue slightly lower than for the sounds which have been described.

5. The sound of *a* in 'cap' is made with the middle of the tongue lowered still more than for the sound last described. It is heard in such words as 'bat' and in the first syllable of 'madam.'

6. The most open sound of *a*, and in fact the simplest of all the vowel sounds, is that heard in 'ah.' The sound is not modified by the lips, and only to a slight extent by the tongue, which lies nearly flat. The sound of *a* in 'watch' and of *o* in 'not' and 'top' as these last two words are commonly pronounced in a large part of this country is the same as that of *a* in 'ah,' except that it is short.

Rounded Vowels

The sounds described above are not greatly affected by the position in which the lips are held. But there is another series of vowel sounds for which the lips are rounded or thrust out to a greater or less extent. These latter are sometimes called *rounded* vowels, while those which have been described are called *unrounded*.

1. We may begin with the vowel of this series which is nearest to the last described of the unrounded vowels. This is *o* as heard in 'lost.' It is made with the lips slightly rounded and the sides of the tongue turned upward a little. The sound given to *o* in 'not' and 'top' in a large part of the United States has been described as a short sound of *a* as in 'father.' In other regions it is a rounded vowel sound which is similar to *o* in 'lost,' but shorter.

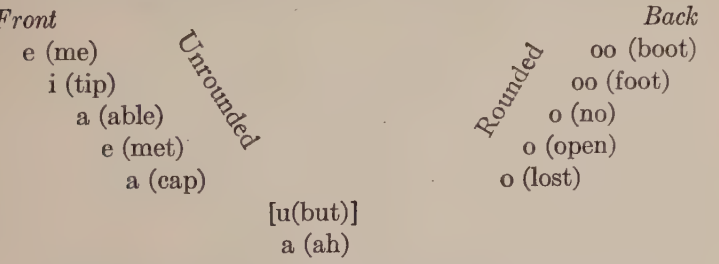
2. The next sound which we can readily distinguish is *o* in 'open.' In 'no' the letter *o* represents a combination of two sounds, as we can observe by the change in the position of the lips or tongue, or both, while it is being slowly pronounced. But in any case the last part of the sound belongs in the series of rounded vowels.

3. The sound of *oo* in 'foot' is made with the lips rounded. It is made farther back in the mouth than that which has just been described.

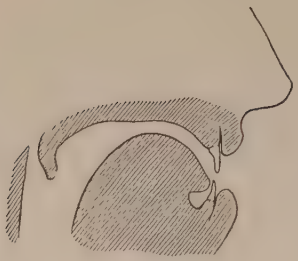
4. The sound of *oo* in 'boot' is a close sound, for which the lips are thrust forward farther than for the vowel sound in 'foot,' and the jaws are usually more nearly closed than for the other rounded vowel sounds.

5. There is another sound which might be placed next to the most open sound of *a* (as in *ah*). This is the sound heard in 'but.' It is closely related to *a* in 'ah,' but the passage in the throat is somewhat contracted by the back of the tongue. An indistinct short sound which may be regarded as a slight modification of this sound is often represented by *a*, *e*, *i*, or *o* in unaccented syllables. Examples are '*a*lone,' 'propri*e*ty,' 'acci*d*ent,' 't*o*day.'

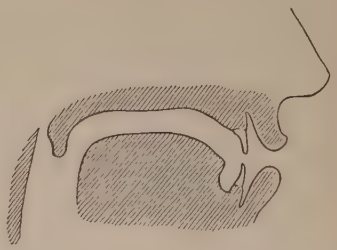
The relation of the vowel sounds as described above may be represented in graphic form as follows:



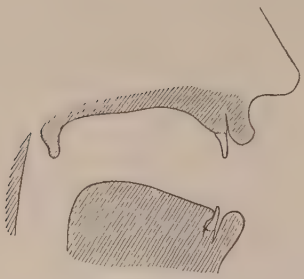
In the pronunciation of 'our' the position of the lips is changed while the *ou* is being sounded. The vibration of the



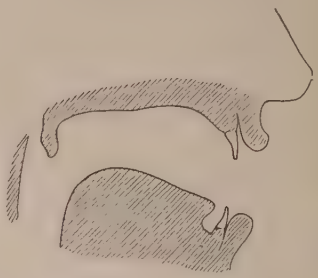
THE SOUND OF *E* IN ME



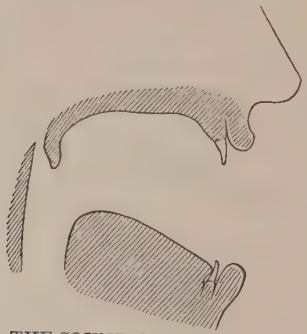
THE SOUND OF *OO* IN BOOT



THE SOUND OF *A* IN ABLE



THE SOUND OF *O* IN OPEN



THE SOUND OF *A* IN FATHER

vocal cords is continuous during the utterance of the word, but two different vowel sounds are blended together by the change in the position of the lips. Such a blending of vowel sounds is called a *diphthong*. Sometimes a diphthong is represented by two vowels, as in 'our' and 'coin.' But there are some letters which may stand for diphthongs. The use of *i* in 'fine' and similar words is an example. The sound of *i* in such words is a combination of *a* in 'ah' and *i* about as in 'tip.' The latter part of the sound, however, has some resemblance to *a* in 'able.'

Glides

If one part of a diphthong, especially a diphthong written with a letter, is very slight, it is called a *glide*, or if at the end of the sound it is sometimes called a *vanish*. Thus, in 'there' a short *u* sound, as in 'but,' may be heard between the *e* sound and the *r*. This *u* sound is the glide. The reason for the glide is the change in the position of the tongue or lips from one sound to another. In the word 'there' the raising of the tongue for the sound of *r* produces the glide which has been described. It is possible in many cases to avoid the glide by holding the tongue very firm or tense in speaking. But this is not the habit of those who speak English, and as a result there are very few pure long vowel sounds heard in our speech. In French and some other languages the tongue is held tense, and consequently glides are less frequent.

The vowel and diphthong sounds which have been described are represented in various ways in the spelling of English words. For example, the sound which has been illustrated by *e* in 'me' is represented by *ee* in 'feet,' by *ea* in 'please,' by *i* in 'marine,' by *ie* in 'chief,' by *ei* in 'deceit,' by *ey* in 'key,' by *ae* in 'Caesar,' and by *eo* in 'people.'

Failure to Observe Difference in Sounds

There are other vowel sounds in addition to those which have been described. A very slight change in the position of the vocal organs tends to make a change in the sound which is produced. But unless one's ear is trained to hear distinctions very accurately, he will often fail to notice the differences when they are slight.

Perhaps one important element in bringing about language changes is this failure to hear with exactness. The foreigner who speaks English with what we call a foreign accent usually does not realize that there is any difference between his pronunciation and that of those about him, and the English-speaking person who learns French or Spanish often does not realize that his pronunciation is incorrect in many respects. Children sometimes mispronounce words through not being able to notice the difference between sounds that are somewhat alike. This is true of accent as well as of vowel and consonant sounds. For example, persons who say 'al'lies' for 'al-lies" commonly do not realize that they are pronouncing the word differently from those who put the accent on the last syllable.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the distinction between the sounds of *f* and *v*?
2. Describe the larynx.
3. What are the vocal cords?
4. Describe the manner in which voiced sounds are produced.
5. What is the velum? the alveolar ridge? the hard palate?
6. What are consonants?
7. How are the sounds of the consonants which are called *stops* made?
8. How do the sounds of the nasals differ from those of the stops?
9. Name the stop consonants; the nasals.
10. What are the bilabial stops? How do they differ from each other?

11. What is the bilabial nasal?

12. How are the sounds of *d*, *t*, and *n* made? What name is sometimes given to this group?

13. What are the palatal stops?

14. How do the sounds of *g* in *big* and *bog* differ?

15. What letters represent the palatal nasal?

16. How do the continuants differ from the stops? Describe the manner of their formation.

17. How is the sound of *w* made? What represents the corresponding voiceless sound?

18. What are the labio-dental, or lip-teeth, continuants?

19. How is a bilabial *v* sound made?

20. What are the two sounds of *th*? How are they made?

21. Describe the sounds of *s* and *z*. What is the meaning of the word *sibilant*?

22. How is the sound of *y* formed? To what other sound does it correspond most nearly in the position of the vocal organs?

23. How is the sound of *l* made?

24. Describe the sound of *r*. How does the use of *r* differ in different parts of the United States?

25. What name is sometimes given to the sounds of *l* and *r*? Why?

26. How is the sound of *h* made?

27. What effect does the vowel which follows have on the sound of *h*?

28. How do the sounds of vowels differ from those of consonants?

29. What is meant by the syllabic use of *l*, *n*, *m*, and *r*?

30. Describe the sound of *e* in *me*.

31. What is meant by a *close* vowel sound? by a *front* vowel sound?

32. How does the sound of *i* in *tip* differ from that of *e* in *me*?

33. What is the position in which the *a* of *able* is made? How do the sounds of *a* differ in *able* and *made* as these words are commonly pronounced?

34. Describe the sound of *e* in *net;* of *a* in *cap*.

35. Describe the sound of *a* in *ah*. Give some illustrations of the corresponding short sound. By what letter other than *a* is this latter short sound sometimes represented in English words?

36. What is the distinction between rounded and unrounded vowels?

37. Describe the sounds of *o* in *lost* and in *open*.

38. What are the two sounds of *oo*?

39. To what other sound is the sound of *u* in *but* most closely related?

40. How is the indistinct vowel sound which is closely related to the sound last described often represented?

41. What is a diphthong?

42. Give examples of diphthongs which are represented by two letters.

43. Give an example of a diphthong sound which is represented by one letter.

44. What is meant by a *glide*? Give an example.

45. What is one reason for the development of the glide at the end of a sound?

46. Why are pure vowel sounds more common in French than in English?

47. What are the vowels of the English alphabet?

48. What is one effect on language of a failure to hear with exactness? Give some illustrations.

CHAPTER XII

HOW LATIN WORDS CHANGED

Value of Latin for the Study of Word Changes

The errors in English pronunciation which have been described in an earlier chapter (pages 27-29) show something of the nature of the changes by which the languages of the Indo-European family have come to differ so widely from one another. There are many other kinds of changes, and some of these will be described later. We can observe these language changes most easily by studying words that have come into our language or into the Romance languages from Latin. Since we have a great deal of Latin literature it is possible to see the early form of a word, and then to study the manner in which its pronunciation and form changed. On the other hand, no literature of what we call the original Indo-European language exists, and we can only attempt to make out the forms of its words by comparing words in the languages that have come from it.

Two Sources of Romance Words

In describing the origin of a word we sometimes say it was taken into French or some other of the Romance languages from Latin. This expression is convenient, but it may be misunderstood. The words of these languages have for the most part been used ever since the time of the Romans, but they have gradually changed in pronunciation and form, as has been explained. The Latin literature, however, existed with the Latin words in the form in which the Romans used them. Only the well educated could understand this Latin literature. Because of the fact that it was much admired, expressions would no doubt be quoted often and words used

in their original form by those who were educated. We therefore find some words in French and the other Romance languages which have not come down in conversational use from Roman times, but which have been borrowed directly from Latin literature. Words of this latter class are often spoken of as "learned words," that is, words used by educated persons, as contrasted with the words which made up the vocabulary of the uneducated. These words have not been changed in form in the same way as the other words of the language, although they have not usually kept the exact Latin form. Two classes of words which represent Latin are therefore found, one class having been used constantly, the other having gone out of use for a time and then having been reintroduced. In order to understand the changes that have taken place in the form of a word it is necessary to know to which class it belongs, and in the case of a learned or "book" word, to know at what period it was introduced.

Word Shortening

We know something of the kind of errors that were made in conversational Latin in Roman times, because they are mentioned by Roman writers. Just as 'famly' is carelessly used for 'family' in English, the uneducated or careless Roman said *moblem* for *mōbilem*, 'movable,' and *tabla* for *tabula*, 'table.' In a great many words the unaccented vowel was dropped in this way, so that words of three syllables were often shortened to two.

Another very important change was the dropping of *m* at the end of many words, just as we have seen that in some regions *r* is often dropped in English. This change was especially important because of the large number of Latin nouns and adjectives that ended in *m*.

In the region where Latin became French a still greater change took place. Regularly all final syllables except those containing *a* either disappeared or were replaced by *e*. Final syllables containing *a* came to end in *e*. Thus *bonus*, 'good,' became *bon; porta*, 'gate' or 'door,' became *porte*.

Confusion of Case Forms

In correctly spoken or written Latin all nouns and adjectives had six cases, while English nouns have only two case forms, and pronouns three. As a result of indistinct pronunciation of the final syllable a number of these Latin cases came to have the same sound. The nominative, which was least often used, seems to have been dropped in most words, and a form which represented the other cases was employed everywhere. For example, instead of the various case forms *arbor*, *arboris*, *arbori*, *arborem*, and *arbore* for 'tree,' as the use of the word in the sentence required, the Romans finally came to employ a single form which probably sounded like a carelessly pronounced accusative, and this has given French *arbre*, 'tree.'[1]

Assimilation

Another change came from the fact that it was a habit of pronunciation among the Romans to give certain consonants the sound of the consonant which immediately followed, or a sound which easily combined with that consonant. Thus *df* became *ff*, *nl* became *ll*, *nr* became *rr*, and *np* became *mp*. This change is called *assimilation*. The tendency to assimilation exists in English, as may be seen in the pronunciation of 'sit down' as 'sid down,' 'have to' as 'haf to,' 'by and by' as 'bime by,' when these phrases are run together as if they

[1] In order to show the relation of a French word to the Latin word from which it has come, the accusative form of the Latin word is sometimes given in this book, as representing approximately the form which resulted from this confusion of cases.

were single words, as is often the case in speaking. Assimilation is especially important to us because of the large number of Latin words which have been taken into English after having been thus changed. The words 'induce,' 'illuminate,' 'import,' and 'irrigate,' all have their first syllable from the same Latin word, *in*. The last three show the forms into which *in* has been changed by assimilation. 'Admit,' 'accuse,' 'affirm,' 'aggressive,' 'alleviate,' 'annihilate,' 'approach,' 'arrive,' 'assist,' and 'attempt' show different forms of *ad*. The word 'assimilate' is itself an example of this change. The first syllable, originally *ad*, became *as* from the influence of *s*, the first letter of *simulāre*, to which it was joined.

Vowel Changes

The Latin vowels were often changed, just as we sometimes hear 'naow' for 'now' in mispronounced English. Some of these changes from Latin to French are more difficult to understand than the changes made in careless English use. For example, *doctor* (*doctōrem*), 'doctor,' became *docteur*. An elaborate change is seen in *jocus*, 'play' or 'game,' which became *jeu*, and *focus*, 'fireplace,' which became *feu*, meaning 'fire.' The Latin vowels each had two sounds, known as long and short. These two sounds do not take quite the same form in the Romance languages. For example, long *e* before certain sounds became *ei*, then later *oi*. Thus Latin *rēx*, *rēgem*, 'king,' became French *roi*, with which English 'royal' is connected. In the same way *lēx*, *lēgem* became *loi*, with which English 'loyal' is connected.

Mare, meaning 'sea,' became *mer*, and *rosa* became *rose*. Perhaps the pronunciation which led to this change of final *a* to *e* was something like that of persons who say 'Ameriky' for 'America' and 'Emmy' for 'Emma.' In modern French final *e* is usually silent when it has no accent mark. The French words *porte* and *forme* are pro-

nounced as words of one syllable. But accented short *e* became *ie*, a change which seems to us rather curious. Latin *mel*, 'honey,' became French *miel*, and *bene*, 'well' (adverb), became *bien*, losing final *e*. These changes in vowels are too numerous and too difficult to describe fully here, but those which have been given may help us in seeing the relation between many English words and the Latin and French words from which they have come. Thus, our word 'fountain' is from Latin *fontāna*, with *o* changed to *ou*, *an* to *ain*, and the ending dropped. It is interesting to see the different forms which the vowels take in some of the other Romance languages. Thus *focus*, which became *feu* in French, is *fuoco* in Italian, and *fuego* in Spanish. *Bonus*, 'good,' is *bon* in French, *buono* in Italian, and *bueno* in Spanish. But we must not suppose that *o* always becomes *uo* in Italian and *ue* in Spanish. Often the accent of the word, and sometimes the sound of the consonant which follows, affects the change in a vowel.

Words in *-tās*

There was a rather large group of Latin words which had the nominative ending *-tās* and the accusative *-tātem*. From these we have many English words in *-ty*, such as 'liberty,' 'gravity,' 'facility.' In French, *lībertātem* lost the final syllable, *-tem*, then the *a* of the last remaining syllable became *é*, and so we have in French *liberté*. Similarly Latin *gravitātem* and *facilitātem* gave French *gravité*, *facilité*. *Bonitātem*, 'goodness,' lost the *i* in addition to the other changes and became *bonté*, which has the same sense as 'bounty.' In *aequālitātem*, which has given us English 'equality,' the French have changed *qu* to *g*, so that the word appears as *égalité*. French *cité*, 'city,' is from Latin *cīvitātem*. After the second *i* was dropped (page 114) it would be very easy for *v* to be disregarded before *t*, and so the word would

take its modern form. In Spanish these words came to end in *-dad* or *-tad* instead of French *-té* and English *-ty*. Thus the words given above are in Spanish *libertad*, *gravedad*, and *facilidad*. *Cīvitātem*, which became English 'city,' is in Spanish *ciudad*, with *u* representing Latin *v*.

Consonant Changes Between Vowels

The reason for the use of both *-tad* and *-dad* in Spanish for Latin *-tātem* is that *t* of Latin words became *d* in Spanish between vowels while it remained *t* after a consonant. This difference is illustrated in *gravedad* and *libertad*.

The change of *t* to *d* is illustrated in the name 'Colorado,' originally a Spanish word from Latin *colorātus*, and in 'desperado,' from Latin *dēspērātus*. Spanish *armada* is from Latin *armāta*. The change of *t* to *d* is found in Portuguese as well as in Spanish. 'Marmalade' comes from Portuguese, and the *d* is part of an ending which Portuguese has taken from a Latin ending with *t*.

There were numerous Latin words ending in *-tor* (*-tōrem*) which denoted the person who does some act. In such words the ending became *-dor* in Spanish, if *t* stood between vowels. Thus, *ōrātor* (*ōrātōrem*) became *orador* in Spanish, and *dictātor* (*dictātōrem*) became *dictador*. It must not be supposed, however, that all Spanish words ending in *-dor* are derived directly from Latin. After the Latin ending *-tor* had become *-dor* in Spanish it was sometimes used in forming new words which had no corresponding Latin word. Thus *toreador*, 'a bull fighter,' was formed in Spanish and had no corresponding Latin form.

Other consonants besides *t* sometimes changed when standing in the middle of a word. An important change is that of Latin *b* or *p* to French *v*. The English 'prove' is from Latin

probāre, the change having been made in the French word from which we have taken our word. The French for 'April' is *Avril*, Latin *Aprīlis*. In this case the English word has been changed back to correspond more closely with the original Latin form. 'Cavalry' is related to Latin *caballus*, 'horse.' In Latin literature the word for horse was *equus*, from which we have the infrequently used word 'equitation.' But there was also the word *caballus*, which meant 'nag,' a horse of not very much value. *Equus* went out of use, and the French word for horse, *cheval*, the Italian, *cavallo*, the Spanish, *caballo*, have come from *caballus*. Similarly, Latin *faba*, 'bean,' becomes Italian *fave*, and *liber*, 'book,' becomes French *livre*.

A change of the opposite sort sometimes takes place, and *p* or *v* at the end of a word becomes *f*. Latin *novem*, 'nine,' becomes French *neuf*, the final syllable having been dropped and *v* changed to *f*.

The Sounds of *c*

The letter *c* has changed in sound in a way which at first seems to us rather strange. In Latin it always had the sound of *k*. In French, *c* before *a* has become *ch* (pronounced *sh*), with the *a* often changed. Thus, Latin *canis*, 'dog,' becomes French *chien*, and *campus*, 'field,' becomes *champ*. Before the sounds of *e*, *i*, and *y* the sound of *c* changed to that of *s* in French and in English derivatives from French or Latin. Occasionally the letter *s* takes the place of original *c* in French, though not often. For example, Latin *placēre* becomes French *plaisir*, English 'pleasure.'

In Spanish, *c* took the sound of *th* before *e* and *i*. Thus *cinco*, 'five,' is pronounced 'thinco.' In Mexico and South America, however, *c* is commonly given the sound of *s* before *e* and *i*.

Development of a Vowel Before Certain Consonant Groups

We have before seen that certain combinations of sounds seem to English-speaking persons difficult to pronounce at the beginning of a word. We do not pronounce *kn* or *gn* in this position. 'Knew' is pronounced 'new' and 'gnat' is pronounced 'nat.' In like manner *sc*, *sp*, and *st* at the beginning of a word seem to have been difficult for those who spoke Latin. But instead of dropping the sound of one of these letters as we do in 'knew' and 'gnat,' their efforts to pronounce words beginning with difficult sounds sometimes led to the use of an added vowel sound, *e* or *i*, at the beginning. The modern Italian word for 'school' is either *scuola* or *iscucla*, from Latin *schola*. The French for 'school' became *escole* from the same Latin word, and then *s* was dropped and the form became *école*, the modern word. It is this habit of putting a vowel sound at the beginning of such words that has given us 'establish' from Latin *stabilīre* and 'estate' from *status*, both having come through French. The modern French forms are *établir* and *état*. Spanish *estipendio* is from Latin *stipendium*, English 'stipend.' In modern French, however, we find some words beginning with the sounds *sc*, *sp*, and *st*. Examples are *science*, *statue*, *splendide*, the first two of which appear in English with the same spelling as in French. These are words which have been taken directly from Latin literature.

The Sound of *x*

A sound which we find difficult in English at the beginning of a word is *x*. The ancient Greeks seem to have found it quite an easy sound in this position, and it is so used in some French words. But we pronounce *z* in English wherever we have kept *x* as the first letter. Thus we say 'zylophone' and 'Zerxes,' although we write 'xylophone' and

'Xerxes.' In modern Spanish the sound of *x* at the beginning of a word is nearly that of *h* in English. Since *j* is similarly pronounced in Spanish, some words have changed from *x* to *j* in spelling. Thus the name *Xerxes* has become *Jerjes*. A curious development is the English word 'sherry,' the name of a kind of wine. It comes from *Xeres*, a town in Spain where the wine was produced, and was apparently introduced into English at a time when *x* in Spanish was sounded like *sh*. The word *Xeres*, which itself came from the Latin *Caesaris*, a form of *Caesar*, is now spelled *Jerez*, and sounds very little like either 'sherry' or 'Caesar.'

Development of a Final Consonant

A consonant sound is sometimes added at the end of a word, where it does not really belong. James Whitcomb Riley has a poem with the title "Little Orphant Annie." No doubt Mr. Riley had often heard the word 'orphan' pronounced 'orphant' in the region where he lived. Sometimes the word 'gown' is pronounced 'gownd.' The final *d* of the word 'sound' was produced in some such way as this. It comes from Latin *sonus*, French *son*, and the *d* is no part of the original word. 'Lend' comes from an Anglo-Saxon word which has no *d*, and has probably taken its final letter in the same way as 'sound.'

The Sounds of *g* and *gu*

If one compares the sounds of *g* and *y* in 'get' and 'yet' he will notice that both sounds are formed in about the same position in the mouth. The fact that these sounds are alike to this extent led to the substitution of *y* (or *i*) for *g* in certain words. Latin *ego*, meaning 'I,' came to be *eyo*, and finally took the form of *io* in Italian and *yo* in Spanish. Also in Latin *fragilis* the *g* sound became *y*, and then disappeared. Hence in Old French the word became *fraile*, modern English

'frail.' In like manner, since the sounds of *qu* and *gu* are formed similarly, *gu* or *g* took the place of *qu* in some words. Thus we have seen that *aequālitās* (*aequālitātem*) became French *égalité*. In Spanish an example of this change is seen in *agua* for Latin *aqua*, 'water.' In some regions where Spanish is spoken, *g* in *agua* has become so indistinct that the word is almost *awa*.

The Loss of Certain Consonant Sounds

Other consonants also in the middle of a word were often lost. *Fidēs*, 'faith,' became French *foi* (by the loss of the *d* and a change in the vowel), and Spanish *fe*. The name of the town *Santa Fé* means literally 'Holy Faith.' The word *Santa* in this name is from Latin *sāncta* (*sānctus*), 'holy.' In French, *saint* has developed from Latin *sānctus* by the loss of *c* and the development of *a* into *ai*, the final syllable having disappeared, as was regularly the case. We have taken the word into English in this form, but its pronunciation is quite different in English from what it is in French. The Spanish for 'saint' appears also as *San* (from *sānctus*) in 'San Francisco' and 'San Diego.'

In 'palm' and 'calm,' and a number of other words, we disregard the sound of *l* entirely after *a* in what is recognized as correct English pronunciation, but we keep the letter in the spelling. In French there is a large number of words in which *l* of Latin has become *u*. Latin *salvāre* has become French *sauver*, English 'save.' French *douce* (*doux*), 'sweet,' is from Latin *dulcis*, which has become *dolce* in Italian. Many of these words end in *x*. Thus Latin *falsus* has become *faux* in French, 'false' in English. Our word 'fault' exists in French in the form *faute*, and it was originally used in English in that form. The *l* was inserted later because it had been in the original Latin form. This restored spelling, as it is called, was a very common result of

the revival of learning, and a recognition of the Latin word from which a given English or French word was derived.

Two other words which were unnecessarily changed in their English spelling are 'debt' and 'doubt.' They exist in French as *dette* and *doute*. The Latin words with which they are connected are *dēbitum* and *dubitō*. Certain writers introduced the present forms of spelling because of the existence of *b* in these original Latin words. It would have been better if the old spelling, which represented the pronunciation, had been kept.

The Development of a Vowel Between Certain Sounds

In the combination *-lm* at the end of an English word some persons insert the sound of *u* between the consonants. Thus we hear the incorrect pronunciations 'fillum' and 'ellum' for 'film' and 'elm.' In the word 'spasm' the combination *sm* is so difficult that we practically always make two syllables in pronunciation, as if it were spelled 'spasum.' This difficulty in sounding *sm* has led to a change in the Italian form of the word, so that it is usually spelled *spasimo*. The Greek word *mna*, the name of a coin, was pronounced and spelled *mina* by the Romans because of their difficulty in pronouncing *mn* in the same syllable.[1]

The Development of *j* from *di*

We sometimes hear 'Indian' pronounced 'Injun,' just as 'soldier' is pronounced as if it were spelled 'soljer.' So in French the use of a *j* sound for *di* has led to a change in the spelling of some words. In French, however, *j* is not pronounced quite as it is in English. French *jour*, 'day,' is from Latin *diurnus*, and our word 'journal' is from a related Latin word, *diurnālis*.

[1] In such words *m* or *n* is sometimes said to have syllabic value.

As in the case of the vowels, there are many other changes which are not described here. But those which have been given will help us to understand a large number of the changes by which the Latin words which make so great a part of our language have taken their present form. They will also make it easier to see the relation between French and Spanish or Italian.

QUESTIONS

1. Why is Latin especially valuable as a basis for the study of language changes?
2. What two different classes of Latin words are represented in the vocabularies of the Romance languages?
3. Illustrate the shortening of words in Latin and in carelessly spoken English.
4. In the development of French from Latin what has happened to final syllables?
5. What is the difference between the case system of English nouns and of Latin nouns?
6. What change took place in the Latin case forms as the Romance languages developed?
7. What is meant by *assimilation?* How are *inducc, illuminate, import,* and *irrigate* related in form?
8. How many sounds had each Latin vowel? Of what importance is this fact in the history of the Romance languages?
9. What is the Latin form of the English ending *-ty* as seen in *liberty* and other words?
10. Mention some consonant changes which have taken place in Spanish words developed from Latin.
11. What is the Latin source of the word for *horse* which appears in the Romance languages?
12. What was the sound of *c* in Latin? What form has Latin *c* taken in French before *a?*
13. Explain the origin of initial *e* in *establish* and *estate.*
14. What is the source of the *d* in *sound?*
15. What sound has sometimes replaced that of Latin *g?* Give an illustration.

16. Tell what you can of the history of the word *saint*.

17. Give some English words in which *l* appears as a silent letter. What is the source of this *l* in the written form of these words?

18. What letter is sometimes used in French to replace Latin *l*?

19. How many syllables in the word *spasm*? What tendency in pronunciation is illustrated by this word? Give another word showing a similar tendency.

20. How is the word *journal* connected with Latin *diurnalis*?

CHAPTER XIII

WHY WORDS CHANGE IN FORM

We have seen something of the position of the vocal organs for the production of vowels and consonants. If we notice the difference in sound which results from a slight change in the position of the tongue or from the rounding of the lips, we shall be able to understand the reason for some of the changes in words which have been described.

Relation Between the Sounds of *g* and *y*

The change of Latin *fragilis* to English 'frail' has been explained on page 121 as due to the fact that the sounds of *g* and of *y* (as in 'yet') were made at about the same position in the mouth. The difference between the two is that for the sound of *g* the passage for the breath is entirely stopped by bringing the surface of the tongue into contact with the hard palate, while for the sound of *y* the tongue is not raised quite so high, and the resulting sound is a continuant. It is as if one did not use energy enough to bring the tongue firmly against the roof of the mouth, and so permitted the breath to escape through a passage which was made very narrow, instead of being entirely closed. The result is a *y* sound instead of a *g* sound.

Substitution of One Nasal for Another

The fact that in certain parts of this country, especially in the South, words which end in *-ing* are often pronounced as if they ended in *-in* has before been pointed out. This does not involve dropping the sound of *g*, since *g* is not really heard in *-ing*. The change consists simply in substituting one nasal for another. The tip of the tongue is allowed to come in contact with the alveolar ridge, whereas in the more careful

pronunciation of the sound represented by final *ng* the middle of the tongue is brought into contact with the hard palate or roof of the mouth. This change seems very slight, since the tongue may be rather lax in the pronunciation of *ng*, and the tip brought near the alveolar ridge.

Omission of *y* Sound

Many persons pronounce 'news' as if it were spelled 'nooz.' The pronunciation which is commonly regarded as correct has the sound of *y* as in 'yes' following *n*, that is 'nyooz.' It is very easy, however, for the *y* sound to be slighted, and for the vowel sound to be permitted to follow the *n* sound directly. For this reason 'dew' is often pronounced exactly like 'do.' By bringing the middle of the tongue near the hard palate immediately after the sound of *d* one may avoid this pronunciation, which is commonly regarded as incorrect.

Change from Voiceless to Voiced Stops

The change of *b* to *v* in such words as 'prove,' from Latin *probāre*, has come about because of the existence in Old French of a bilabial *v*, as explained on page 101. This sound would very easily come from a carelessly pronounced *b*, for which the lips were not quite firmly closed, and then by a slight change in the position of the lower lip the sound would become that of modern *v*. For *Avril*, the modern French word for 'April,' still another change took place. Since *p* and *b* differ only in the fact that *p* is voiceless and *b* is voiced, it would be easy for *b* to take the place of *p*. While such a change as this is not often illustrated in carelessly spoken English, we know that it did occur in certain other languages. When *p* of *Aprīlis* had become *b*, the further change to *v* was made in the same manner as in *probāre*.

We have seen that *t* between vowels has become *d* in such Spanish words as *dictador* for *dictātor* (*dictātōrem*) and *orador* for *ōrātor* (*ōrātōrem*). This is merely a change from a voice-

less consonant to the voiced consonant made with the vocal organs in the same position, like the change from *p* to *b* which was illustrated in the history of French *Avril* from *Aprīlis*.

How *j* Developed from *di*

The pronunciation of 'soldier' as 'soljer,' and the tendency to pronounce 'Indian' as 'Injun,' come from the fact that the sound represented by *di*, when followed by a vowel in the same syllable, and the sound of *j* are made with the vocal organs in almost the same position. The letter *j* in 'joy' and similar words does not represent a simple consonant sound, but a combination of sounds which we may represent by *dzh*. The sound of *i* in the words which have been given above has been changed first by shifting the position forward from that of short *i* to that of *ee*. We have seen that the sound of *y* is made in almost the same position as that of *ee* (page 102), and that *y* in 'yes' differs in position very slightly from *zh*. The development of *j* from *di* followed by a vowel therefore comes from a series of slight changes in the position of the vocal organs.

In the case of such words as 'journal,' from Latin *diurnālis*, the sound became *dzh* from *di*, as we now pronounce it. Later in French the *d* sound was lost, and the sound of *j* became that of *zh*. While this change from the sound of *di* to *j* (*dzh*) is fully recognized in the pronunciation of 'soldier,' and while it has given us the letter *j* instead of *di* in 'journal,' good usage does not accept it in 'Indian.' This word is correctly pronounced in three syllables with *d* and *i* kept distinct.

Vowels and Consonants Resulting from Glides

We have seen that English vowels commonly develop a glide which is simply an additional vowel sound, often very indistinct. A glide may also develop between consonants,

caused by the change of the position of the tongue, lips, or velum from the position required for one consonant to that required for the one which follows. The negro dialect pronunciation 'fambly' for 'fam(i)ly' is an example. The change from the position of the lips for *m* to that of the tongue for *l* makes a *b* in careless speaking, if the nasal passage is closed by the velum before the lips are opened. A similar change from the position for *m* to that for *r* has caused the development of *b* which appears in our word 'number,' through French *nombre*, from Latin *numerus*. When *e* was lost between *m* and *r*, as we have seen happened frequently in the case of an unaccented vowel in the middle of a word, the sounds of *m* and *r* were brought together in a pronunciation which was something like *numr* or *nomr*, and *b* then developed as a consonant glide. Commonly 'warmth' is pronounced *warmpth*, the sound of *p* being the result of a consonant glide after *m*. 'Cucumber' has taken *b* in the same way. The Latin is *cucumis* (*cucumerem*). In Spanish the combination *mn* has become *mbr*. Thus, Latin *nōmen*, 'name,' became Spanish *nombre*.

Change of *-er* Sound

The word 'clerk' is now pronounced in England exactly like the proper name 'Clark,' which is merely another spelling for 'clerk.' In earlier times the *e* of this word was sounded as in 'met.' The pronunciation now heard in England results from a more open position of the mouth and throat. Possibly our American pronunciation 'clurk' is to be explained from the fact that before *r* the sound of *e* tends to develop a glide which may make a diphthong of the original sound. The latter part of the sound thus developed is somewhat like *u* in 'fur,' and from this the sound which we employ may have come, with the dropping of the first part of the diphthongal sound. 'America' is sometimes pronounced incorrectly as if spelled 'Amurica.'

The Development of the Sounds of *c*

By noticing the effect of changes in the position of the tongue we can understand how the sound of *k* which was given to the letter *c* in Latin gradually developed into the *s* sound which *c* has in certain positions in modern French and English words. As we have seen, the sound of *k* is made by bringing the surface of the tongue into contact with the roof of the mouth at some point of the hard palate. By pushing the middle of the tongue forward slightly and bringing a larger part of it into contact with the hard palate a sound like *ky* is produced, as heard in the dialect pronunciation of 'kyart' for 'cart' and 'kyow' for 'cow.' When the tongue is brought forward still further, the tip is brought near the alveolar ridge, and the *ky* changes quite easily to *ty*. This in turn becomes *tsh*, or *ts* by the escape of the breath between the tongue and the alveolar ridge immediately following the *t*-sound. Finally the first part of the *ts* combination was dropped, leaving the *s* sound as we have it in 'certain,' 'city,' and many other words.

Before *a* in French the sound of *c* became *tsh*, then later *sh*, but spelled *ch*, which we find in a large group of words taken from French.[1] Thus 'charge' comes through French from Latin *carricāre*, while 'cargo' comes through Spanish from the same Latin word.

These changes were really caused by the fact that French *e*, *i*, and *a* are front vowels, and hence the position of the tongue for the pronunciation of the consonant was shifted forward unconsciously in preparation for the pronunciation of the vowel which was to follow. Before the back vowels *o* and *u* and before consonants *c* kept its original sound of *k*.

[1] The change to *ch* before *a* took place later than the change in the pronunciation of *c* before *e*, *i*, and *y*.

Regularity of Sound Change

We find that sound changes which are directly opposite in character sometimes take place. Thus *d* sometimes becomes *th* and *th* sometimes becomes *d*. But we must not suppose that these changes are without law or regularity. In a particular region or among the speakers of a particular language there will be seen a tendency for changes of a certain kind, while in another region or among the speakers of another language changes of a different kind will take place. We do not know why this is so. It has been supposed that the influence of climate on the organs of speech has something to do with the difference, but no one has ever proved this to be the case.

Thus we have seen that *c* before *a* at the beginning of Latin words became *ch* in French, while in Spanish and Italian it remains *c*. In French the final syllable of a Latin word (with certain definite exceptions) is dropped, while in Spanish and Italian it is retained. One of the sounds of the original Indo-European language which appears as *p* in Latin has become *f* in English. The Latin word *pēs* is from the same source as the English word 'foot,' which has the same meaning.

Apparent Exceptions to Uniformity of Change

Sometimes particular words will be found which do not appear to have changed in the same manner as the other words of the language to which they belong.

But it is usually possible to discover why they have varied from the laws which seem to govern similar words. Perhaps analogy is the reason for the greatest number of such seeming irregularities. Thus the word from which 'neither' comes would have given us 'nother' according to the natural development of the vowel sound in the first syllable. But 'either' existed in the language, its first syllable coming from

a different vowel sound from that of 'neither,' and by analogy 'neither' was changed to correspond in form with 'either.' The plural of 'roof' would regularly be 'rooves,' just as the plural of 'shelf' is 'shelves.' But the influence of the great number of words which merely add *s* to the singular in order to form the plural has given us 'roofs' by analogy, and the *v* sound which would naturally have been developed is replaced by *f*.

We can not always tell why analogy changes one form and does not change another. Perhaps the difference in the frequency with which words are used is the main reason for the difference in the manner in which they develop.

QUESTIONS

1. Explain the chief features of the changes in pronunciation whereby Latin *fragilis* has become English *frail*.
2. What is the character of the change illustrated in the pronunciation *walkin* instead of *walking?*
3. What mispronunciations of *news* and *dew* are sometimes heard? How are they caused?
4. Explain the change of Latin *b* to French (and English) *v*, as seen in *prove* from *probare*.
5. What changes are illustrated in the change of *p* to *v* in French *avril* from *Aprilis?*
6. Explain the development of the *j* sound in the pronunciation of *soldier*.
7. What result of a glide before a vowel is seen in some Italian words?
8. How does the negro dialect pronunciation of *fambly* for *family* develop?
9. Give an English word in which a *b* has developed and is now recognized in the spelling.
10. What is the origin of the *p* sound which is commonly heard in *warmth?*
11. What difference exists between the English and American pronunciation of 'clerk'?

12. Explain the change in the sound of the letter *c* from an original "hard" or *k*-sound to the modern "soft" or *s*-sound which is regularly heard before *e, i,* and *y* sounds in French and Latin derivatives.

13. What form has a Latin *c* assumed in French before *a?* Explain the sound change that caused this change in spelling.

14. Do sounds change everywhere in the same manner?

15. What are some of the variations in the sounds of Latin as found in different Romance languages?

16. What is a probable reason for variations from the regular laws of sound change in a particular region?

17. Explain how the form *neither* is related to *either.*

CHAPTER XIV

CHANGES IN MEANING

Words Originally Denoting Material

We have seen that many changes in the forms of words have taken place and that many of our words today have only a slight resemblance to the form in which they appeared two or three hundred years ago. Changes in meaning have also come about in the same manner. Sometimes the original meaning of a word is forgotten after a time, and new meanings are added because those who use the word do not know what was its exact meaning at first. Thus the word 'box' came from the boxwood tree, which seems to have been first used for making boxes. Later, when the wood of other trees was used for boxes the same name was employed, and finally the origin has been so far forgotten that we may even speak of an iron box.

In early times the horns of certain animals were used to make wind instruments which were blown upon to call men together or to give signals of various sorts, just as the modern bugle is used. Later other materials were substituted for the making of such instruments, but the name 'horn' was still kept, so that we now speak of a tin horn or a brass horn.

Generalization and Extension of Meaning

We use the word 'circus' to mean an entertainment by acrobats, usually in connection with an exhibit of animals. In Rome there was a celebrated place of entertainment which was called the Circus Maximus, in which racing and sometimes other forms of amusement took place. Sometimes it was called simply the Circus. The original meaning of *circus* was 'circle.' The circus arena, or the central part where the

performances take place, therefore, represents the origin of the word. The Roman Circus Maximus, however, was not round, but oval, and we have used the word still more freely in making it refer not merely to the place of entertainment, but to the entertainment itself.

One of the seven hills on which Rome was built was called the *Palatium*. This hill had been a very fine residence district, and here the emperors built their residences. The form *palatia*, the plural of *Palatium*, then took the meaning, 'a splendid residence,' and from this has come our word 'palace.' We have also taken from Rome the word 'capitol,' the building in which the law-making body meets, and in which certain government business is done. The *Capitōlium* was one of the hills of Rome on which a famous temple to Jupiter was located. The name *Capitōlium* was given to the temple, as well as to the hill on which it stood. From this the modern use of the word, though with changed meaning, has come.

In a few of our cities there are to be found large buildings for conventions or similar gatherings with the name 'colosseum.' This name is taken from that of a famous building in Rome in which public entertainments were given. Near the Roman Colosseum stood a very large statue of one of the Roman emperors. The word *colossus* was used by the Romans (and also by the Greeks) to denote a statue of great size, and from this *colossus* the Roman Colosseum (sometimes spelled Coliseum) was given its name. From *colossus* we have also the word 'colossal,' meaning 'very large.'

There is a small sea bird called the 'petrel' which frequently skims along the surface of the waves in such a way that it sometimes gives the appearance of walking on the water. Its name is supposed to have been given from the story of St. Peter walking on the sea. The form of the name perhaps means 'little Peter.'

Pieces of statuary or carving and pictures representing persons are sometimes found which are very unnatural in their shape, and which seem rather amusing because of their queer appearance. We use the adjective 'grotesque' to describe such objects or pictures. The word is derived from an Italian word, *grotta*, meaning a cavern or underground room. Pictures of this kind are said to have been painted first on the walls of certain underground rooms in Italy, and from this fact the Italian word which was given to such painting was formed from *grotta*. From this Italian adjective our English word was afterwards derived through the French.

Specialization and Restriction of Meaning

There was a Latin adjective *capitālis*, which sometimes meant 'at the head,' 'important.' The neuter form, *capitāle*, came to be applied to property. Since one of the most important forms of property was herds, *capitāle* was next used to denote this kind of property in particular, and with a very easy change in pronunciation and form it became 'cattle.' Afterwards the word 'capital' was introduced directly from the Latin with the earlier meaning of 'money.' The Latin adjective *capitālis* is derived from Latin *caput*, meaning 'head.'

An 'agent' is often a person who sells some article, frequently by going from house to house. But originally the meaning was 'one who does some act.' It is almost exactly the same as the rather old-fashioned word 'doer' in such expressions as a "doer of good deeds." When one wished to have a business matter attended to by some other person, this person whom he employed was called his 'agent,' that is, the one who did the business for him. The word is often used in that sense. If a manufacturer employs someone to act for him in selling what he manufactures, the person who undertakes to sell is often called an 'agent.' If he has com-

plete charge of selling in a particular part of the country he is called a general agent. One who acts for a publisher by selling books from house to house is called a book agent.

'Magazine' is derived from Arabic and originally meant 'a storehouse.' It took the special meaning of a storehouse of ammunition or weapons, in which it is still used. It is sometimes used in French and Italian, in slightly different form from the English word, to mean 'store' or 'shop,' a place where articles are kept for sale. It was taken to refer to a publication containing literary material of greater or less value, as if this were a storehouse of literature, and this is its most common meaning in English today.

'Surgeon' comes from a longer form, 'chirurgeon,' which is of Greek derivation. The first syllable represents the Greek word for 'hand.' The surgeon was the man who 'handled' the injured limb, in the effort to relieve pain or to dress the wound. This same syllable *chir* appears in the rather uncommon word 'chirography,' which means 'handwriting.'

We have also the Latin word for hand, *manus*, in numerous words. One of these is 'manage' and its derivative 'management.' Another is 'manual,' a 'handbook.' It was used in many Latin derivatives from which English words have been formed. 'Command' and 'commend' are from this source. The Latin *mandāre* meant literally 'to give into one's hand,' and from this *commandāre* was formed with the meaning 'to give to one as a task,' and so 'to order' or 'to direct.'

The Latin *hospitālis*, 'hospitable,' or 'pertaining to a guest,' has given us 'hotel.' There is an old English word 'hostel,' meaning 'hotel,' which shows how the changes in form took place. As the French word developed originally from the Latin, the final syllable of the Latin word would first be lost, and then the unaccented *i* in the middle of the word would drop out of the pronunciation. Then *p* would be lost, because the group of three consonants was hard to pronounce,

and finally the French tendency to drop *s* before a consonant would give the modern French *hôtel*.

'Liberal' is from a Latin word meaning 'free.' The free man was expected to act in a more honorable manner than was required of the slave, and liberal meant, therefore, 'that which is appropriate for a free man.' We sometimes speak of the liberal arts, meaning the subjects of study which give satisfaction or pleasure to one who has a good intellect.

When one buys several articles of the same kind, a list is sometimes made out in which the name of the article is written, then the word 'ditto' is written below with the number of articles bought in addition to those given at first. Often the abbreviation 'do' is used for 'ditto' or marks (") are put in its place. The word 'ditto' comes from an Italian word which in turn comes from a Latin participle meaning 'having been said.' So when we write 'ditto' below a word we mean 'that having been said above' or better, 'that which was said above.' The modern Italian word for 'having been said' is *detto*.

The body of men who make laws for the United States is called 'Congress.' But the original meaning of this word does not have anything to do with laws or law-making. It comes from a Latin form *congressus*, which means a 'meeting,' and is in turn from a verb *congredior*, 'come together.' In very early times all the citizens of a town would come together to vote on matters which in modern times a city council decides. This gathering of the citizens was called 'a town meeting.' When the United States government was formed, the name given to the body of men who were to make the laws had the same meaning as the phrase used for the law-making assembly of citizens in the towns. That is, the new group of law-makers was called by a name which simply meant 'a meeting.'

'History' and 'story' are both from Latin *historia*. The second of these has taken a meaning which differs from the original Latin word, while the first has kept close to the meaning as well as the form. The Latin word *historia* was borrowed from Greek, but the meaning which is given to 'story' was employed in Latin.

The mouth of a river which divides into two or more channels is called a 'delta' from the name of the letter of the Greek alphabet which corresponds to our *d*. The capital form of this letter is a triangle, and when a river has only two channels which separate near the sea or lake into which it empties, the land which lies between them is triangular in shape. When a river makes more than two channels, the land lying between them does not always correspond to the shape of the letter from which the name is taken.

'Patent' is from a Latin word *patēns*, meaning 'open.' It is often used as an adjective meaning 'clearly seen' or 'manifest,' as when we say a certain fact was 'patent.' The commonest use, however, is as a noun, meaning the right which an inventor has over the manufacture and sale of an article. This sense is from the use of the word to denote the document called 'letters patent,' which contained a statement of the inventor's rights, and which was open for public inspection.

'Diamond' and 'adamant' are in origin the same. 'Adamant' is from a Greek word with the meaning 'that which cannot be overcome.' It denoted something too hard to cut or break by ordinary means. The *a* was dropped and the pronunciation of the remaining syllables slightly changed, giving 'diamond.' In some other languages the change has been less than in English, and we find the Italian and the Spanish *diamante*, which are nearer the original form.

'Alligator' is from two Spanish words, *el lagarto*, meaning "the lizard."

Transfer from Specialized Meanings

'Board' originally meant a thin piece of wood, and it is still commonly used with that meaning. But it has also taken other meanings which at first seem to have no connection with its original sense. Thus we speak of a 'board' of directors, or of paying for one's 'board.' The first of these meanings came from the use of 'board' to mean a council table, then the men who gather about such a table. In the second sense, 'board' was used for a table on which food is served, then for the food.

When we talk of the great or small influence of the 'press' of a city, we are referring to its newspapers. But this use of the word press is quite different from its original sense. The word 'printing-press' was very naturally used to name the machine for printing, since the paper is pressed against the type in the process. Quite naturally 'printing-press' is often shortened to 'press,' and so we speak of a new book as being just from the press. Then by a transfer of meaning, we use press in such phrases as the 'power of the press' to denote the newspapers, which are the product of the printing-press, or even to denote the editors or managers of the newspapers.

'Orient' is from a Latin word meaning 'rising.' *Oriēns sōl* (*orientem sōlem*) 'the rising sun,' was used to denote the part of the horizon where the sun rises. Then *orientem* alone was employed to give this meaning, and it is now used to mean the eastern regions or countries. Another Latin word, *levāns* (*levantem*), from *levāre*, had the same meaning, but its use in this sense was later than that of *oriēns*. From it we have the words 'Levant,' the region about the eastern end of the Mediterranean, and 'Levantine,' an inhabitant of this region.

When Christianity was adopted at Rome, the inhabitants of the cities became acquainted with the new religion and accepted it before the people who lived in the villages and in

the country. In these places the old religion was still maintained. A Latin word for 'a country district' is *pagus*, and a dweller in a *pagus* was called *pagānus*. Hence the word 'pagan,' which would seem to mean merely a 'countryman,' was used to denote a person who did not accept Christianity, but held some other religious belief. The word 'heathen' in like manner meant literally 'a dweller on the heath,' that is, one who lived in the open country. It was used to mean a person who did not accept Christianity, just as was the word 'pagan.' 'Heathen' is a word of Germanic origin, and it seems to have been employed for the purpose of translating *pagānus* exactly.

There are other derivatives of *pagus* of a different sort. A Latin word *pagēnsis* was formed later with about the same meaning as *pagānus*. This was shortened by the careless pronunciation of later times and it has finally become 'peasant' in English. French *pays* and Italian *paese* meaning 'country' in such expressions as 'our country' are from this source.

Transfer from Physical to Mental Application

A Latin word for 'furrow' was *līra*. When one could not plow straight he was said to 'wander from the furrow.' The verb formed to express this idea was *dēlīrāre*. Then this verb took on the meaning 'to wander in mind,' 'to be insane,' and the noun derived from it, *dēlīrium*, meant 'a wandering in mind.' We have adopted the word in the exact form in which it was used by the Romans, and with the meaning which is found in Latin literature.

The use of 'agony' to mean 'intense suffering' is a great change from the meaning of the Greek word from which 'agony' is derived. The Greek *agōn* meant 'contest,' and our word 'antagonist,' which is of the same derivation, means 'one who struggles against another.' From the meaning 'struggle' the idea of suffering as a result of the struggle was

connected with the word, and finally this meaning alone was given to it.

When one makes a statement which gives an impression that something is greater or smaller or better or worse than is really the case, we say he 'exaggerates.' The Latin word *exaggerāre* meant 'to pile up.' There is a Latin noun *agger*, meaning 'a mound' or 'heap of earth,' used especially in connection with military operations. *Exaggerāre* is from this word, with the meaning given above.

'Equal' is from Latin *aequālis*,[1] which in turn goes back to another Latin word *aequus*. The original meaning of *aequus* was 'flat' or 'level.' Then, since in a surface which was level no part had any advantage in location, the meaning 'equal' would easily be developed, and consequently *aequus* took on this meaning. Another meaning for *aequus* was 'favorable,' which probably came from the fact that a surface which is level offers no hindrance to one's movements. This latter meaning did not come into the English derived word.

The word 'equanimity' is from *aequus* and *animus*, 'mind' or 'spirit.' We sometimes speak of one's temper being ruffled, just as we do of the surface of a body of water. The Latin phrase suggests the opposite; that is, one's mind is like an undisturbed surface, and so 'equanimity' comes to mean a calm or undisturbed state of mind.

Degradation of Meaning

There is an old English word 'caitiff,' meaning a scoundrel or criminal, which is found in literature, but which is seldom used nowadays. There is also an Italian adjective, *cattivo*, which means 'bad.' Both these words came from the Latin *captīvus*, meaning 'a captive.' In fact the word 'captive' has

[1] The pronunciation of *ae* came to be the same as that of *e* in late Latin, and finally *e* was substituted for *ae* in the spelling of many words. In some proper names which we have taken from Latin, such as 'Aetna' and 'Caesar,' *ae* is retained and is pronounced either as long or short *e*.

exactly the same origin as 'caitiff' but it has not had quite the same changes in form. Since one who was arrested for a crime was a *captīvus*, that is a prisoner, the word came to mean about what we mean by a 'prisoner in the penitentiary.' Then quite naturally it was used to denote a person who ought to be in prison, and so a scoundrel. The Italian meaning changed still further and the word *cattivo* was employed for 'bad' in almost every sense. 'Caitiff' was developed from Latin in Norman-French, and hence its form had changed greatly because of the French pronunciation. 'Captive' was taken from a French word which was formed more directly from Latin, and for this reason it has not greatly changed from the original *captīvus*.

A word which has changed very much in meaning without changing in form is 'knave.' Originally knave meant 'boy,' and the modern German word for boy, *knabe*, has the same origin. It was then used to mean 'servant,' just as a servant in India is usually referred to as a 'boy,' even though he is a grown man. Probably because the English servant of early times was often unreliable, 'knave' took on the meaning 'tricky individual' or 'swindler,' and the former meaning 'boy' was entirely lost.

Words from Customs of Earlier Times

After the Normans defeated the Saxon inhabitants of England in 1066, they made laws to control the conquered people very closely, and to prevent them from rebelling. One of these laws required that all lights be put out at a certain time, and that the fires in the fireplaces be covered with ashes, so that companies should not gather in the evenings to plot rebellion. A bell was rung as the signal for putting out the lights and covering the fires. This bell was called the 'curfew' bell, from the old French words *covre feu*, 'cover fire.' This name is sometimes used in modern times for a signal

requiring persons to be in their homes at a certain time in the evening.

We call a man who wishes to be elected to office a 'candidate' because of a Roman custom of two thousand years ago. The Roman citizen commonly wore a garment called the *toga*, which was made of wool, and was of the natural color of wool. But it was the custom at Rome for a man to indicate that he wished to obtain votes for an office by putting on his toga a preparation which made it very white. As he went about trying to induce people to vote for him he wore this white toga. One of the Latin words for white is *candidus*, hence the office-seeker's toga was called the *toga candida*, and the man himself was referred to as *candidātus*, which literally means 'having been made white.' From this our word 'candidate' is formed.

Another word which comes from an election custom is 'ambition.' The Latin verb *ambīre* means 'to go about,' and this word was used to refer to the going about of the candidate in his effort to gain votes. The noun which meant 'a going about' is *ambitiō*, which is formed from the verb *ambīre*. The first meaning of 'ambition,' therefore, was an effort to win office. Later it came to mean a desire to become prominent or to obtain something which was regarded as honorable.

In arithmetic the figures which are employed in representing numbers are sometimes called 'digits.' The use of this word suggests the very simple methods of making calculations in early times. *Digitus* is the Latin word for 'finger,' and one of the simplest methods of counting is by the fingers. When the use of characters for numbers was developed, the word which suggested the earlier method was kept.

It is customary for the driver of a team of horses to refer to the horse on the left-hand side of the team as the 'near' or 'near-side' horse, and the one on the right as the 'off' or 'off-

side' horse. How did these words come to be thus used? When the work of plowing or drawing wagons was done by oxen, the driver usually walked beside his team, and since oxen have no bridles, the whip, which was often a long stick, was used to guide the oxen. Most men are right-handed, and consequently the driver would carry his whip in his right hand. If he walked on the right-hand side of his team, it would be awkward and somewhat difficult to reach across the backs of the oxen with his whip. But, if he walked on the left, his right hand, in which the whip was held, would be next the oxen, and he could easily reach both animals. Consequently he would walk on the left and the left-hand ox would be next to him, and so would be the 'near' ox, while the one on the right would be the 'off' ox. When horses were used instead of oxen the same terms were used, and if the driver walked it would usually be to the left, although sometimes he would be directly behind.

Words from Beliefs of Earlier Times

When we tell the exact location of a place we often give its latitude and longitude; that is, we tell how many degrees it is north or south of the equator, and how many degrees east or west of a certain line on the earth's surface. The word 'latitude' really means 'width,' and 'longitude' means 'length.' These words have taken their present meaning because the ancients believed that the earth was flat, and that its extent east and west was greater than its extent north and south. Accordingly distance east and west was thought of as distance along a part of the length of the earth, while distance north and south was thought of as distance across a part of its width.

The word 'lunatic' preserves the record of a superstitious belief regarding the cause of insanity. *Lūna* means 'moon,' and a lunatic was supposed to have been affected by the influence of the moon, and to have lost his reason as a result.

Mistaken Etymology

Often a word is changed in form because it sounds like some other word which is more familiar. The small animal which is called 'guinea pig' did not come from the same country as the 'guinea fowl,' but from Guiana in South America, while the guinea fowl came from Guinea, on the west coast of Africa. But probably from the fact that the guinea fowl was well known, the word Guiana was confused with Guinea, and so the name 'guinea pig' was developed.

A similar confusion, but with familiar words, is seen in 'hogshead,' a large cask like a barrel. It is believed to be derived from a Dutch word meaning 'oxhead.' We do not know why the word was used in this sense, although it has been supposed that the figure of an oxhead may have been marked upon casks of this sort at first. The pronunciation was probably misunderstood, and the name which is now used was adopted without any thought of its meaning.

Origin Obscured by Change in Form

Sometimes the changes in form which have taken place make it difficult to trace the changes in meaning. What we call 'buckwheat' had originally a form which meant "beech-wheat," because the grains of buckwheat are shaped something like a beech nut. But as a result of the change of form the original meaning was easily forgotten.

'Bedlam,' an old name for an insane asylum, comes from the name of a hospital in London which was used for insane persons. It was called the hospital of St. Mary of Bethlehem. Through mispronunciation the word 'Bethlehem' came to be 'bedlam.'

Another word which has lost all traces of its original meaning is the name of the flower, the 'dandelion.' This was

originally French *dent de lion*, which means 'lion's tooth.' It was given this name because of the appearance of the leaves, which look something like a row of teeth. The word *dent*, meaning 'tooth,' is not pronounced in French as it would be in English, and it was quite easy to change the expression to the form in which it now occurs.

Another word which with its changes in meaning has lost all trace of its original appearance is 'jail.' There was a Latin word *cavea*, sometimes meaning 'cage,' which appears to have become *gabia*, and from this another word *gabiola*, 'a little cage,' was formed. Later this word lost the letter *b* and finally became in French *geole*. In English it took the form 'gaol,' a spelling which is still used in England, but with the same pronunciation as our word 'jail.' Finally the spelling was changed to correspond with the pronunciation.

We have seen that 'dandelion' represents a combination of three words. Other words also are sometimes made by two or more words in a similar manner. When we say 'good-by' on parting with a person, we are using a phrase of two words for what was originally four. The older expression was 'God be with you,' and by shortening the pronunciation of 'with' it became 'God be wi' you' which finally became 'good-by.'

The porcupine has its name from a combination of the word *porcus*, 'a pig,' and *spīna*, a 'thorn.' It is therefore the 'thorn-pig.' There was also in older English a slightly different form of the name which came from *porcus* and *spica* ('a spike'), so that it was also called the 'spiked pig.' Both these names came through the French, and the word which developed from *porcus spīna* became *porc espin*, then finally porcupine.

'Alarm' was originally an Italian phrase *all' arme*, meaning 'to arms.' 'Alert' is also from an Italian phrase *all' erta*, which means literally 'on the edge of a precipice,' and so

comes to mean 'watchful.' 'Avalanche' was originally a French word formed by a combination of two French words. The original meaning was 'toward the valley,' since the avalanche rushes down from the mountains into the valley.

'Dollar' comes from the last part of a long word, *Joachimsthaler*. *Thal* means 'valley' in German, and *Joachimsthal* was the name of a valley in which very fine coins were made. The name *Joachimsthaler* was given to the coins made in this valley. Later it was shortened to *thaler*, in which the *a* was pronounced about like *o* in *dollar*. The German *th* is represented by *d* in English, and hence our word took the form which it now has.

QUESTIONS

1. Explain the development of the meaning of the words *box* and *horn*.
2. What was the original meaning of the word *circus?* What was the *Circus Maximus?*
3. Give two words which are derived from the names of two of the hills on which Rome was built.
4. Where was the original Colosseum located? What are the two spellings for this word? What adjective is connected in derivation with *Colosseum?*
5. What is the meaning of *grotesque?* Where were *grotesque* pictures first painted?
6. How are the words *capital* and *cattle* related?
7. What was the original meaning of the word *agent?* How have its modern meanings developed?
8. What are the different meanings of *magazine?* Which of these meanings is most closely related to the original meaning?
9. What are some derivatives from the Latin word *manus?*
10. Explain the derivation of *hotel*.
11. What is the source of the word *liberal?*
12. What is the meaning of *ditto?* From what language has it come?
13. What is the meaning of the Latin word from which the name of the law-making body of the United States is derived?

14. What is the *delta* of a river? Why is it so named?
15. What is the meaning of the word from which *diamond* has come?
16. Give some different meanings of *board* and show how they are related.
17. What is the meaning of the phrase "the freedom of the press"? How is this meaning of the word *press* derived?
18. What region is called the *Orient?* Why?
19. Explain the origin of the words *pagan* and *heathen.*
20. From what language has *agony* been derived? What was the meaning of the word from which it has come?
21. Explain the origin of *exaggerate.*
22. What is the meaning of *caitiff?* What familiar English word has come from the same Latin word as *caitiff?*
23. What is the meaning of the Italian word which is derived from the Latin source of the two English words above referred to?
24. What is the *curfew* bell? Explain the origin of the curfew, and the derivation of the word.
25. Explain the origin of the word *candidate.*
26. What was the meaning of the Latin word from which *ambition* has come?
27. What are the *digits?* What method of counting is suggested by the modern meaning of this word?
28. Which is the "near" side of a team of horses? Why?
29. Give the meaning of the words *latitude* and *longitude.* What are the literal meanings of these words, and how have the modern meanings been developed?
30. What superstitious belief is suggested by the word *lunatic?* What are the origin and modern meaning of *bedlam?*
31. From what country does the *guinea pig* come? What is the origin of its name?
32. What is the meaning of the words from which the name of the *dandelion* is formed?
33. What is the meaning of the word from which *jail* has come?
34. Explain the origin of *good-by.*
35. How was the word *dollar* derived?

CHAPTER XV

GOOD USAGE

The Standard of Usage

We have seen that the present form of our language has come from changes in the pronunciation and word use of older languages. These changes appear to be in part the result of the failure to hear sounds correctly and of the unwillingness to use enough care and effort to pronounce words as they had been pronounced. Other very important sources of change are analogy and the influence of one sound on another, as in the case of assimilation. The same tendencies still exist, as is shown by the speech of uneducated persons. Since language growth, as we call it, has come from the failure to observe carefully any one pronunciation or use of words, it may be asked whether it is worth while to try to be accurate in the use or pronunciation of words.

The Value of a Standard

There are two reasons why it is important to be accurate in one's use of language. First, it is important that we should continue to make ourselves understood in all regions where our own language is spoken, and that we should be able to understand any one who speaks our own language. If pronunciation and word meaning changed so greatly that a man from California had difficulty in understanding a man from Massachusetts or Maine, it would be much more difficult to carry on business or to travel. In the same way if the language of America should ever change so greatly from that of the British Isles as to make it impossible for inhabitants of one of these regions to understand the language

spoken in the other, communication and business between the two countries would be hindered. If we had to learn another language in order to make ourselves understood in England or in Australia, the result would be a waste of time as compared with the present situation. In actual fact there are some differences between the use of English in our own country and in England or Australia, but these are not very great, and they do not prevent a native of the United States from making himself understood in either of these countries.

The other reason for trying to be accurate is that one is sometimes criticized unfavorably by persons with whom he wishes to associate, if he is careless in his manner of speech. There is a fashion in language just as in clothes in any period. If one should wear the style of clothes which were commonly worn two hundred years ago he would be an object of ridicule. We may say that the clothes worn then were just as good as those of today, but nevertheless if one wishes to go about without attracting attention in an unpleasant way, he must wear the general type of clothes which others wear. In the same way if he wishes to avoid ridicule and unfriendly criticism he must use a manner of speech which does not differ greatly from that used by those about him who are respected, and who are regarded as well educated.

Some Variations Allowable

While the style of clothing worn at any one time is the same in most respects, there are some individual differences which are allowable. In the same way there is always a certain amount of variation in pronunciation and in the use of words, but among educated persons this is not great. Some changes are always taking place. These changes, however, are rather slow, and they are likely to be held in check by the influence of schools and of travel, as we have seen. Where differences do exist, one may ask which pro-

nunciation or which word is to be accepted as correct. Thus in England and to some extent in America the *a* of 'fast' is pronounced as in 'father,' in other regions it is pronounced as in 'hat.' If one asks which of these is to be taken as the standard of correct usage, we shall have to say that there is no authority for deciding that either one is wrong. In England those who write books on pronunciation take as the standard of correctness the pronunciation which is heard among well educated persons who live in London or other cities of southern England. This is commonly referred to in such books as the *standard pronunciation*. But it is not the generally accepted standard in this country, nor is it likely to become such. We may say that it makes little difference whether one follows the usage of many well educated persons in those parts of the United States where *r* is usually silent before a consonant and at the end of words, and where *a* in such words as 'ask,' 'fast,' 'pass,' and the like, is sounded as in 'father,' or whether on the other hand he pronounces *r* in all positions, and gives *a* in the words quoted above the sound heard in 'hat,' as is generally done in the West and Middle West.

Dictionaries

When we are in doubt about the meaning or pronunciation of a word, we usually turn to a dictionary for information. But the authors of dictionaries do not have the authority to decide just what meanings for a word should be recognized or how it should be pronounced. They merely tell us what meanings are found in books or other printed material, and what pronunciation is used by men who are well educated. When words are pronounced differently by well educated men we find these different pronunciations given in good dictionaries with the indication that either is correct. In such cases the author of the dictionary usually indicates which of the possible pronunciations he prefers by placing that one first.

Methods of Indicating Pronunciation

The pronunciation is indicated either by printing special marks, called *diacritical marks*, above or under the letters of the word, or by re-spelling the word with a special alphabet in which each letter represents only one sound. An alphabet of this sort is called a *phonetic* alphabet. The English dictionaries which are of most importance to us at present are Webster's International, the Standard, the Century, and the New English Dictionary (also referred to as Murray's Dictionary or the Oxford Dictionary). Diacritical marks are used in the International and the Century dictionaries, although the marks used in the two books are not quite the same. The New English Dictionary uses a phonetic alphabet, and the Standard uses both diacritical marks and a phonetic alphabet. The pronunciation given in the New English Dictionary is the standard pronunciation of London and southern England, while the other three dictionaries that have been named give prominence to pronunciations used in the United States.

Word Histories

In arranging the definitions of words some dictionaries place first the original or oldest meaning to be found, others give first the meaning most frequently used at the present time. The New English Dictionary gives first the oldest meaning to be found, illustrating it by a sentence from literature, then shows the later meanings with illustrations arranged in the order of time. This requires a great deal of space, and hence this dictionary is very large and very expensive. It has also required a long time for its preparation. The first part was published in the year 1884, and while it has been published in sections or parts as fast as prepared, it is not yet (in 1921) quite completed.

In addition to giving the meaning and pronunciation, dictionaries also show the etymology of words; that is, their derivation. If you look up such a word as *liberty* you will find a French word *liberté* from which our word *liberty* has come directly, then a Latin word *lībertās* (*lībertātem*) from which *liberté* was derived, then another Latin word, *līber* from which *lībertās* in turn was derived. Sometimes, also, parallel or related words of several languages are given to illustrate the derivation of a word, although they are not the original forms from which the English word has come.

Slang

It is sometimes said that slang is a very important source of new words and of language changes. No doubt many words have come from this source. The French word *tête*, meaning 'head,' apparently came from a slang word which was used instead of *caput*, the regular Latin word for 'head.' Probably the word for 'horse' in all the Romance languages had the same origin. But the greater number of our modern slang words and phrases do not last very long. If one should use the slang terms that were common twenty years ago, many of them would scarcely be understood. It is desirable that one should be able to use as well as possible that part of the language which is most permanent and which will be useful for the greatest number of years. If one uses slang terms continually instead of the words and expressions of good English, he becomes less familiar with the manner of speech that he must use when he wishes to write or speak correctly. As a result it is more difficult for him to use good English when he wishes to do so. Many slang expressions are very vague in their meaning, and if one uses them continually he loses the ability to describe with exactness what he has seen or heard or read. Usually slang expressions are first employed in the effort to say something that is striking or amusing, and

as thus used they often make a statement more effective. But as they are repeated by others they frequently grow rather tiresome. Perhaps the most common use of slang is by persons who themselves cannot talk in a clever manner, and so they employ expressions which they have thought amusing when used by others.

The Spelling of English

One of the most serious difficulties that foreigners have in learning English is the irregular spelling of English words. Thus in 'rough,' 'cough,' and 'bough' the letters *ough* represent three different sounds. In the words 'ship,' 'sugar,' 'ancient,' 'conscience,' 'ocean,' 'nation,' the sound of *sh* is represented by six different spellings. When a foreigner hears a word which he has never seen in print he is not likely to know how to spell it, and on the other hand when he sees a word in print which he has never heard he is often entirely unable to decide how to pronounce it.

Some Sources of Irregularities in Spelling

These irregularities have come about for different reasons. One reason is that in borrowing words from other languages we sometimes attempt to keep the pronunciation of the languages from which they have come. Thus, in 'depot' and 'debris,' which are taken from French, we do not pronounce the final *t* and *s*, because they were not pronounced in these words in French at the time when they were borrowed.

Another reason for irregular spelling is that while the pronunciation of many English words has changed from that of earlier times, we still keep the spelling of the old pronunciation. The final *e* of 'name' was once pronounced, and *w* in 'write' stands for a sound which was heard in the older pronunciation of this word. Similarly, in 'night' the letters *gh* represent a sound which has disappeared. But there are

many words for the spelling of which we cannot give so good a reason as in the case of those that have been mentioned. The words 'doubt' and 'debt,' as has been already said, were once spelled without *b*, and this letter was inserted because someone remembered that the Latin words from which they were derived had *b*. Its sound, however, had been lost, and in French the letter itself had dropped out, so that it was not needed for the English word. The word 'ghost' was once spelled 'gost,' but apparently some one of the printers of early times inserted *h* because a Dutch word of similar meaning was spelled with *h*, and he supposed the English word was the same.

Samuel Johnson and Modern Spelling

A very important influence in fixing our spelling in its present form was the dictionary published by Samuel Johnson in 1755. This book was taken as authority for English spelling to a great extent, but many of the forms which Johnson used had no good reason for their adoption. For example the last syllables of 'receipt' and 'deceit' come from the same source, and there was as little reason for *p* in one word as in the other. 'Precede' and 'proceed' are from compounds of the same Latin word, and the last syllable should have been spelled alike in the two words. This is also true of 'exceed' and 'succeed,' as against 'recede' and 'concede.' 'Sovereign' had been spelled 'sovran' in earlier times, but Johnson mistakenly thought it was connected in derivation with 'reign,' and so used the spelling which we still employ.

We have changed some of the spellings which Johnson used, as for example 'honor,' 'favor,' and a number of other words ending in *-or*. These were formerly spelled 'honour,' 'favour,' etc. and some of them are still spelled in England with *-our*. 'Music' was formerly spelled 'musick.' But many irregular spellings remain for which there is no good reason.

Simplified Spelling

There are groups of men both in this country and in England who are trying to have a simpler form of spelling adopted. They have prepared lists of words which they believe should be spelled in a simpler way, and these spellings have been in part adopted by some magazines and newspapers. Thus, 'tho,' 'altho,' 'thoro,' and 'thru' for 'though,' 'although,' 'thorough,' and 'through' are among the changes which have been recommended, and which are now used by some writers. Another proposed change is that of *ed* to *t* at the end of such words as 'pressed' ('prest') 'stopped' ('stopt'). Many of these have been spelled in literature as it is now proposed to spell them everywhere. Other changes are also proposed which would make the spelling represent the sound of the word much more nearly.

Some persons object to these proposed changes because they think the new forms of the words are very unattractive in appearance. Those who favor the changes reply that if we were accustomed to 'tho,' 'altho,' and similar words we should not think that the addition of *-ugh* made them more attractive. Another objection occasionally made is that we should retain the spelling of the great writers of literature. But the fact is that we have changed very greatly the original spelling of Shakespeare and the English Bible, and some of the proposed changes would restore the earlier forms. Still another objection is that the present spelling often makes it easy to find out the history of a word. To this the advocates of simpler spelling answer that the purpose of spelling is merely to represent a word, not to tell its history, and that there are other ways of finding the history of words.

It seems probable that many of the proposed changes will be adopted. Changes of this sort come slowly, and at present the fact that business men have not yet realized the ad-

vantages of the new spelling is the chief cause of its slow progress. The schools must teach the forms of words which are accepted as correct by those who employ the boys and girls who graduate from schools. Until simplified forms of spelling are accepted outside of schools, books which may be used in schools must employ the usual forms of words. If some of the irregularities which now exist in our spelling were removed, we should save time in school for other studies, and also we should save time and space in writing and printing.

QUESTIONS

1. What would be the effect in business life if there were very rapid changes in language?
2. In what way would rapid changes be wasteful of time?
3. What reason apart from usefulness affects our choice of language?
4. Give examples of some variations in pronunciation which are considered allowable.
5. What are some of the purposes of a dictionary?
6. Does the maker of a dictionary have authority to decide what shall be the meaning or pronunciation of a word?
7. In what two ways is pronunciation indicated in dictionaries?
8. What are the most important dictionaries of the English language?
9. Tell what you can of the Oxford Dictionary.
10. What are some of the disadvantages of the excessive use of slang?
11. What are some examples of the irregularities of English spelling?
12. What are some of the undesirable results of our present spelling?
13. What effect upon our spelling has the introduction of words from various languages had?
14. What is the origin of the *b* in *debt* and *doubt*?
15. Who was Samuel Johnson? In what way did he influence English spelling?

16. What are some of the changes which are proposed in order to simplify our spelling?

17. Give examples of some words which were simplified in spelling some time ago.

18. What are some of the objections which are made to simplified spelling?

CHAPTER XVI

WORLD LANGUAGES

Greek

We have seen that Greek was once the language not only of Greece but also of a large part of the civilized world about the Mediterranean Sea. The uncivilized or half-civilized nations which had commercial dealings with the traders from civilized countries also learned something of the Greek language, and it served as a means of communication between different nations to a greater degree than any other language. Important inscriptions by Roman officials have been found which were written in both Latin and Greek. The great Roman orator, Cicero, in one of his speeches declared that while the region where Latin was known was rather limited, Greek was understood everywhere. Undoubtedly Cicero was exaggerating in this statement because he wished to bring out the importance of certain material which was written in Greek. But none the less it is true that the use of Greek was so widespread at one time that it might be called a world language from the point of view of that part of the civilized world which has been of most importance to us. The nations of eastern and northern Asia, of America, and of the greater part of Africa knew nothing of Greek, but they had little or no connection with the civilization which has been the source of our modern institutions and ideas, and when we speak of the ancient world in reference to history we commonly mean that part which has had some connection with the Mediterranean civilization. From this point of view Greek was a world language.

Latin

The extension of the power of Rome over western Europe and northern Africa made Latin the most important language of the civilized world for a time, although it did not entirely drive out Greek from the eastern regions. Latin was often used in communications between different nations, and after the Revival of Learning it was considered the most appropriate language for books of importance. Francis Bacon, an English writer of only three hundred years ago, translated into Latin a number of books which he had originally written in English because he believed they would continue to be read for a much longer period of time if written in Latin than if written in English.

French

A few centuries ago French held a somewhat similar position to that which Latin had formerly held, especially among the upper classes of Europe. Those who were prominent in what was called polite society in various nations often used French in preference to their own language. In some of the states of Germany French was used instead of German by the rulers and those associated with them. Its use among the nobility of Russia was very common through a long period. When diplomatic business was carried on between different nations French was commonly employed. French thus became, if not a world language in the fullest sense, at any rate the language most widely used among the nations of Europe.

English

At the present time English seems likely to become a world language to a greater extent than any other modern language. Since it is used in the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Hawaii, and to some extent in India,

Porto Rico, the Philippines, and many other countries, as well as in the British Isles, it is the common form of speech of a very large part of the world's population. But in addition to this fact, the great commercial activity of the English-speaking nations has given some knowledge of English to people in various parts of the world where other languages are spoken. Americans and Englishmen do business in South America, in Japan, in China, in parts of Africa, and in many of the islands of the seas. There are in our American colleges students from all parts of the world, and these become familiar with English. American and British missionary schools have also helped to spread a knowledge of our language. Still another influence is the great number of foreigners who have spent a few years working in some part of this country and have then returned to their native lands. The result of all these facts is that one who speaks English can travel over a very great part of the world and make himself understood by the use of his own language. This does not prove that a knowledge of other languages is without value, because there are many regions where one can not get on without a knowledge of the native language. But it does indicate the very great value of English among the languages now spoken.

Perhaps the greatest hindrance in the way of the foreigner who learns English, and consequently a hindrance in the more rapid spread of the language, is its irregular spelling. We have seen that efforts are being made to lessen this difficulty.

Artificial Language

A number of efforts have been made to create a new language which should take the place of existing languages and thus become universal in its use. The most important of these at present is Esperanto. Societies have been formed for the spread of Esperanto and some books have been printed in it. But these efforts do not attract much attention outside

of small groups of enthusiasts. Most people seem to prefer to learn a language which is already in use and which has a literature. The fact that so many different artificial languages have been invented makes it appear unlikely that any one of them would give final satisfaction if it were adopted for universal use.

QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by a world language?
2. What were the world languages of ancient times?
3. What language was most widely used a few centuries ago?
4. What reason is there to regard English as likely to be a world language?
5. What is the most important of the artificial languages?

CHAPTER XVII

PREFIXES

When a particular word or syllable has been used in connection with several other words to modify their meaning and thus create new words it sometimes comes to be thought of as having a special force in word formation. A word or syllable which is joined to the beginning of a word to modify its meaning and thereby form a new word is called a *prefix*. A prefix which is also used as an independent word, as for example 'out-' in 'outlive' and 'outrun,' is called a *separable* prefix. A prefix which is never used as a separate word, as 'un-' in 'unhappy,' is called an *inseparable* prefix.

The prefixes which are used in forming English words are from three sources: Latin, Greek, and Anglo-Saxon (or Old English).

I. Latin Prefixes

In the following paragraphs the most important Latin prefixes are given, together with illustrations of their use. These prefixes were used in Latin to form new words, and most of the English words in which they appear are derived from these Latin words containing the prefixes. Thus, 'reduce' comes from the Latin *redūcō*, which is made up of *re-* and *dūcō*. But sometimes these prefixes are joined to English words, or to words which have come from some other source than Latin. Thus, 'rebuild' is made up of the Latin prefix *re-* and the English word 'build.'

1. *a, ab, abs*, 'from':

The three forms of this prefix represent three forms of a Latin preposition. Of these forms *ā* was used only before words beginning with a consonant. The form *ab* was always used before words beginning with a vowel or *h*, and also

before some consonants, and *abs* was used chiefly before *t*. The following words illustrate these three different forms in derivatives:

*a*verse
*ab*rupt
*abs*tain

2. *ad*, 'to,' 'toward':

In Latin compounds the *d* of *ad* was assimilated to a following *c*, *f*, *g*, *l*, *n*, *p*, *s*, or *t*. Before *q* it appears as *c*. Before vowels and before other consonants than those given above it retains its form as *ad*. In addition to its original form it is therefore to be found as *ac-*, *af-*, *ag-*, *al-*, *an-*, *ap-*, *as-*, and *at-*. Examples of its use are the following:

*ad*ore	*an*nihilate
*ac*cuse	*ap*proximate
*af*fect	*as*similate
*ag*gressive	*at*tract
*al*leviate	*ac*quire

In each of the above words the syllable printed in italics represents the prefix *ad*.

Sometimes the meaning of a word has changed so greatly from that with which it was originally used that we do not readily see the force of the prefix. But we can usually find some trace of the earlier meaning. Thus 'adore' meant originally 'to pray to.'

3. *ante*, 'before':

ante is used in 'antecedent,' and it appears as *anti* in 'anticipate.' But it must not be confused with the Greek prefix *anti*, meaning 'against,' which will be explained later. The abbreviation A. M. for forenoon is from *ante meridiem*, 'before the middle of the day.' The phrase *ante bellum*, 'before the war,' is often used to refer to the time preceding the American Civil War of 1861-1865.

The French *avant*, and the Italian *avanti*, meaning 'before,' are derived from a combination of *ab* and *ante*.

4. *bene*, 'well':

This prefix is a Latin adverb which is used in forming some nouns and adjectives.

*bene*diction
*bene*fit
*bene*factor

5. *bi-*, 'twice,' 'doubly,' 'two':

bi- is an inseparable prefix (see page 164), although there is also a Latin adverb *bis* with nearly the same meaning.

*bi*lingual
*bi*metalism
*bi*ennial
bi-monthly
*bi*carbonate

There is a Latin noun *biennium* which means 'two years,' and from this 'biennial' is derived. By analogy we have formed other compounds, such as 'bi-monthly,' every two months, and 'bi-weekly,' every two weeks. These words are often used to refer to magazines appearing once in two months or two weeks.

a. This prefix is seen in a great many terms used in chemistry, such as 'bicarbonate,' 'bichloride,' and the like.

6. *circum*, 'around':

Some of the more familiar derivatives of *circum* are the following:

*circum*stance
*circum*ference
*circum*spect
*circum*navigate

The derivation of 'circumstance' suggests the meaning 'things standing about one.' The idea of 'around' is easily seen in the other words given above.

7. *com-*, 'with,' 'together,' 'utterly':

The prefix *com-* is the equivalent of the Latin preposition *cum*, 'with.' It appears in a great many Latin compounds, and in a great many English derivatives. The final letter

appears as *m* before *b*, *p*, or *m*, as *r* before *r*, as *l* before *l*, as *n* before other consonants. Before vowels the prefix usually appears as *co-*.

The different forms of the prefix are therefore: *com-*, *con-*, *col-*, *cor-*, *co-*.

Examples of its use are the following:

*com*pose	*cor*rupt
*con*duct	*co*öordinate
*col*lect	*co*efficient

The meaning 'together' is most frequently seen in the compounds of *com-*. Occasionally the compound Latin verb with *com-* came to mean the same or nearly the same as the simple verb from which the compound was formed, and so we cannot always see the force of the prefix. Thus, *fateor* and *cōnfiteor* both meant 'confess,' and whatever was added originally to the meaning of *fateor* by the addition of *com-* had been lost by usage in the course of time. In like manner we sometimes use adverbs after verbs in English when the simple verb would mean the same as the phrase. Thus we may say, "He has built up a reputation," although the meaning would be the same if we said, "He has built a reputation." Just as 'up' is used in this phrase without adding anything important to the thought, so *com-* added to *fateor* to make *cōnfiteor* does not really change the meaning. But this is not usually the case. Generally one of the meanings for *com-* given on page 166 can be seen in some meaning of the compound. Thus, 'compose' meant originally 'put together,' and 'conduct' meant 'lead together.' In our English use of 'conduct' we have changed the meaning, but we can trace it back to the original meaning.

8. *contra*, 'against':

The most important compounds of *contra* are 'contradict' and 'contravene.' It also appears in 'contraband' and 'con-

trast.' In the phrase 'pro and con,' meaning 'for and against,' *con* is an abbreviation of *contra*.

9. *dē*, 'from,' 'down,' 'not':

The Latin preposition *dē* differed in meaning from *ā, ab*, and from *ē, ex*, in that *dē* meant 'down from,' *ē, ex*, meant 'out from,' and *ā, ab*, meant 'away from.' In compounds it is not always possible to see a difference in meaning. Some compounds of *de* are the following:

*de*duct	*de*tract
*de*rive	*de*sist

10. *dis-*, 'apart':

dis- is an inseparable Latin prefix, which sometimes appears as *di-* and sometimes as *dif-*. Perhaps its most frequent use in English derivatives is to give a negative or opposite meaning to the word to which it is added.

*dis*tract	*dif*fident
*dis*honor	*di*gression
*dif*fuse	

a. In French, *dis-* has become *dé*, and in some English words it is found as *de*. Thus the first syllable of 'defy' is from this source. In 'decentralize' also the prefix comes from *dis*.

11. *ē, ex*, 'from,' 'out of':

The difference between the two forms *ē* and *ex* was much the same as that between *ā* and *ab*. *Ex* was always used before a vowel or *h* and before some consonants; *ē* was used only before consonants.

*e*dit	*ex*clude
*e*minent	*ex*pose

12. *extra*, 'outside,' 'beyond':

Extra is a preposition, which was used in numerous Latin compounds. But it has come to be employed very commonly

in the formation of new English words and phrases. The following words are derived from Latin compounds:

*extra*neous *extra*ordinary *extra*vagant

The word 'extra' which is used to denote a special issue of a newspaper is probably an abbreviation of 'extraordinary.' With adjectives *extra* is sometimes prefixed with the meaning 'more than usually.' Thus we have 'extra-hazardous' and 'extra-fine.'

13. *in*, 'in,' 'into,' 'against':

There are two Latin prefixes with the form *in*. They are entirely different in origin and meaning, and must be carefully distinguished. The first is the Latin preposition which means 'in,' 'on,' 'into,' 'toward' or 'against.' It has the form *im-* before *b*, *m*, or *p*, *il-* before *l*, and *ir-* before *r*.

Examples of its compounds are the following:

*in*duce *il*lusion
*im*migrant *ir*ritate
*im*pede

14. *in-*, 'not,' 'un-':

This second *in-* is an inseparable Latin prefix meaning 'not.' It has the same force as the prefix 'un-,' but it should not be supposed that 'un-' is derived from *in-*. Both go back to an Indo-European original. The two are sometimes interchanged in use. The second *in-* takes the same form before consonants as the first. That is, it may become *im-*, *il-*, or *ir-*. Examples of its use are the following:

*in*correct *il*logical
*im*possible *ir*regular

15. *inter*, 'between,' 'among':

We have numerous derivatives from Latin compounds of *inter*.

*inter*est
*inter*jection
*inter*mittent

But *inter* is used with a great number of English words to form new words. Thus, 'interstate' commerce is commerce between states, or rather between persons in different states.

16. *intra*, 'within':

The meaning of *intra* is contrasted with that of *inter* to denote something within the boundaries of a state or institution. Thus 'intrastate' means 'within one state' as contrasted with 'interstate.' The word 'intramural,' literally, 'within the walls,' is sometimes used to refer to athletic or other contests carried on within a school, while 'interscholastic' denotes contests between different schools.

17. *non*, 'not':

Non is a Latin adverb. It is used very freely in forming English words. Some of these words are regarded as compounds and are printed with a hyphen. Thus, 'non-resident,' 'non-essential.' A few have lost the hyphen and are printed as single words: 'nonentity,' 'nonsense.'

18. *ob*, 'against':

The words in which *ob* is found are almost all derived from Latin compounds. By assimilation *ob* may take the forms *oc-*, *of-*, *op-*. Examples are:

*ob*trude	*of*fend
*oc*cur	*op*pose

Its compounds are very numerous, but it is not used to form new words, with the exception of occasional scientific terms.

19. *per*, 'through,' 'complete,' 'very':

As a Latin preposition *per* meant 'through.' In compounds it often meant 'completely,' or 'very.' Sometimes it gives the meaning 'to destruction,' or 'to evil,' as in 'pervert' and 'perdition.'

*per*forate	*per*manent
*per*ennial	*per*secute

Most words in which this prefix appears in English are formed from Latin compounds.

a. It is used in many chemical terms to denote the maximum of some element in combination. 'Peroxide' is an example.

20. *post*, 'behind,' 'after':

Derivatives of Latin compounds are 'postpone' and 'postscript.' Many new words are found in English with *post*, such as 'post-graduate,' 'post-classical.'

a. In 'postmaster,' 'postoffice,' 'postage,' 'postal,' and related words the syllable 'post' is not the prefix given above, but is from the past participle (*positus*) of the Latin verb *pōnō*, 'place.' From this participle came an Italian word which was taken into French, and from this our word came.

21. *pre-*, 'before':

The Latin preposition from which *pre-* is derived is *prae*. It is used in many words with a hyphen, as 'pre-existent,' 'pre-classical,' 'pre-glacial.' It is found in a great number of Latin derivatives.

*pre*cede	*pre*lude
*pre*dict	*pre*position

22. *pro*, 'favoring' (originally, 'in front of,' 'in behalf of'):

As an English prefix it is found in such expressions as 'pro-slavery,' 'pro-British.'

In words which represent Latin compounds *pro* sometimes means 'forward,' as in 'produce,' 'progress.'

23. *quadri-*, *quadru-*, *quadr-*, 'four':

The Latin word for 'four' is *quattuor*, but the prefix with that meaning takes the form given above. Some derivatives are the following:

*quadr*angle	*quadru*ped
*quadri*lateral	*quadru*ple

24. *re-, red-*, 'back,' 'again':

This is an inseparable Latin prefix. Examples of derivatives from Latin compounds are 'reduce,' 'repel,' 'revive,' 'redemption.'

New words are formed in English with this prefix.

*re*arrange	*re*organize
*re*construct	*re*touch

In some words the original meaning has become difficult to recognize. Thus the idea of opposition is seen in such words as 'rebel,' 'reluctant,' 'remonstrate,' 'repugnant.' Still other changed meanings appear in 'relinquish,' 'remote,' 'reproach.'

The compounds of *re-* usually have a hyphen when *re-* is followed by *e*; sometimes also when it is followed by other vowels.

re-educate
re-animate

25. *retro*, 'backwards,' 'back':

In derivatives of *retro-* the meaning 'again' is also sometimes found.

*retro*active
*retro*grade
*retro*spect

26. *se-*, 'from' 'apart from':

In Latin, *se-* was used mainly as a prefix, and its English use is only in derivatives of Latin compounds. Examples are:

*se*cede	*se*dition
*se*cure	*se*parate

27. *semi-*, 'half':

This is another inseparable Latin prefix. Few, if any, of its English uses represent compounds which appeared in Latin. It is added freely to English words to make new

words, and its compounds are very numerous. Examples are:

*semi*annual	*semi*official
*semi*barbarous	*semi*transparent
*semi*circle	*semi*tropical

28. *sub-*, 'under':

By assimilation *sub* takes the forms *suc-*, *suf-*, *sug-*, *sum-*, *sup-*, *sur-*, *sus-*.

*sub*ordinate	*sum*mon
*suc*ceed	*sup*press
*suf*fix	*sur*render
*sug*gest	*sus*pend

The words in which assimilation has taken place are all formed from Latin compounds. When used to form new words in English *sub* keeps the original spelling.

*sub*marine	*sub*soil
*sub*normal	*sub*way

29. *super*, 'over,' 'beyond':

In compounds it sometimes means 'in addition' or 'more than usual.'

*super*human
*super*natural
*super*sensitive

30. *tri-*, 'three,' 'composed of three':

A great many scientific terms are formed with this prefix. Some words in common use are the following:

*tri*angle
*tri*color
*tri*pod

31. *trans* (*tran-*, *tra-*), 'across,' 'on the other side of':

Derivatives from Latin compounds of this preposition are numerous. Some of them are:

*trans*fer	*trans*ition
*trans*form	*trans*mit
*trans*gress	*trans*port

Among its compounds of recent formation are:
trans-Atlantic *trans*-continental *trans*-Siberian

II. Greek Prefixes

1. *a-*, *an-*, 'not,' 'without.'
*a*byss, originally, 'without bottom,' from *byssos* [Gk.], 'bottom.'
*an*archy, 'without government,' from *arche* [Gk.], 'government.'
a. This prefix has the same meaning as English *un-* and Latin inseparable *in-*. All three come from the same source in the original Indo-European language.

2. *amphi*, 'around,' 'on both sides,' 'both.'
*amphi*theater, originally, a place in which spectators could observe an entertainment from all sides.

3. *ana*, 'back,' 'again,' 'thoroughly.'
*ana*chronism, referring something back to a time to which it did not belong.
a. In Greek *ana* was a preposition meaning 'up.' 'Analogy' is a compound of *ana*, and meant 'up to an account or standard.'

4. *anti*, *ant-*, 'against,' 'opposed to.'
*anti*christian, 'opposed to Christianity.'
*ant*agonist, 'one who struggles against another.'
*anti*pathy, 'a feeling against.'
*anti*thesis, 'an idea set against another.'

5. *apo*, 'from,' 'away,' 'quite.'
*apo*strophe, 'a turning away from.'
a. *apo* is from the same source as Latin *ab*.

6. *cata*, *cat-*, 'down,' 'against.'
*cata*ract, 'a rushing down.'
*cata*strophe, 'an overturning,' 'a disaster.'

7. *di-*, 'twice,' 'double,' 'two.'
di(s)syllable, 'a word of two syllables.'
*di*phthong, 'a combination of two sounds.'
a. di- is from the same source as Latin *bis* and *duo*.

8. *dia-*, 'through.'
*dia*meter, 'the measure through,' (compare 'meter.')

9. *dys-*, 'ill,' 'bad.'
*dys*pepsia, 'bad digestion.'

10. *ec, ex*, 'from,' 'out of.'
*ec*lectic, 'selected,' or 'selecting from (different sources).'
*ex*odus, 'a going from.'
a. This prefix is from the same source as Latin *ex*.

11. *en, em-*, 'in,' 'on.'
*en*thusiasm, originally, 'having a god within one.'
a. en is from the same source as the first *in* on page 169.

12. *epi, ep-*, 'upon.'
*epi*taph, 'an inscription written upon a tomb.'

13. *eu, ev-*, 'well.'
*eu*logy, 'praise,' 'speaking well.' 'Logic' is a related word without the prefix.
*ev*angelist, 'writer of a gospel,' 'one who tells good news.'

14. *hemi-*, 'half.'
*hemi*sphere, 'half a sphere.'
a. hemi- has the same source as Latin *semi-*.

15. *hyper*, 'above,' 'excessive.'
hyper-critical, 'excessively or unduly critical,' 'critical above or beyond a reasonable degree.'
a. hyper has the same source as Latin *super*.

16. *hypo*, 'under.'
*hypo*thesis, 'a supposition,' 'a statement placed under as a basis.'

17. *meta*, 'after,' 'change.'
*meta*phor, 'a change of meaning,' 'a transfer of meaning.'

18. *para*, *par*, 'beside.'
*para*llel, 'beside one another.'

19. *peri*, 'around.'
*peri*scope, 'an instrument for looking around.'

20. *pro*, 'before,' 'forward.'
*pro*blem, 'a question proposed for solution,' 'a thing put forward.'

a. Most English words in *pro-* are from the Latin prefix. '*Pro*gram,' '*pro*boscis,' '*pro*scenium have the Greek prefix.

21. *syn*, *syl*,- *sym-*, *sy-*, 'together,' 'with.'
*syn*opsis, 'a general view of a subject,' 'a view of a subject together, as a whole.'
*sym*metry, 'proper proportion of measure,' 'agreement of one part with another in measure.'
*syl*lable, 'part of a word taken together in pronunciation.'
*sy*stem, 'a standing together,' 'an orderly combination of parts into a whole.'

a. Latin *com-* has nearly the same force as Greek *syn-*.

III. Anglo-Saxon and English Prefixes

Modern English words of Anglo-Saxon origin are sometimes employed as prefixes with the same meaning which they have when used independently, or with a meaning so nearly related that they need no special explanation as prefixes. Examples are 'down,' 'up,' and 'every,' in such words as 'downfall,' 'downcast,' 'uphold,' 'uplift,' 'everybody,' 'everywhere.' There are other prefixes from Anglo-Saxon which either are not used as independent words or else have special meanings as prefixes. Some of the more important of these are given in the following paragraphs.

1. *a-*, 'on,' 'to,' 'toward,' 'into,' 'up.'

*a*foot	*a*broad	*a*rise
*a*shore	*a*part	*a*side

a. There was an Anglo-Saxon preposition *an*, from which most of the meanings given above have come. It was employed in older English as a preposition with the form *a*. Its use is seen in such sentences as "They set the bells a-ringing," and "I go a-fishing." The use of *a-* from Latin and Greek sources has been explained on pages 164 and 174.

2. *be-*, 'all over,' 'thoroughly.' It is used to form verbs from nouns and adjectives, or to make transitive verbs of verbs formerly intransitive.

*be*sprinkle	*be*head	*be*moan
*be*cloud	*be*dew	*be*friend

a. This prefix has the same origin as the word 'by,' and it originally meant 'about.' Thus 'bespeak' was 'to speak about,' 'bejewel' was 'to put jewels about.' New words formed with this prefix have a wide range of meanings.

3. *by-*, 'beside,' 'subordinate,' 'incidental,' 'out-of-the-way,' 'past.'

*by*stander	*by*gone
*by*way	*by*product

Sometimes this prefix is used with a hyphen, as in 'by-product,' 'by-path,' but the hyphen is often omitted even with these words.

a. The first syllable of *bylaw* is from an Anglo-Saxon word for 'town,' but it is associated with the prefix given above.

4. *for-*. This prefix occurs with a few words of very common use, but it is difficult to give meanings to the prefix that can readily be distinguished in these words. Some words in which it appears are the following:

*for*get	*for*bid	*for*swear
*for*give	*for*bear	*for*lorn

a. The prefix is not the same word as the preposition 'for.'

5. *fore*, 'before,' 'in front.'

*fore*warn	*fore*tell
*fore*see	*fore*runner

a. This prefix is not a shortened form of 'before,' but is an adverb (and preposition) in origin, still seen in the phrase 'fore and aft.'

6. *mis-*, 'bad,' 'badly,' 'wrongly,' 'unfavorably.'

*mis*apply	*mis*conduct
*mis*calculate	*mis*deed
*mis*interpret	*mis*manage

a. While this prefix as seen in the words given above is of Anglo-Saxon origin, there is also a prefix of exactly the same spelling and the same meaning which comes from the Latin *minus*, 'less,' through the French. It has in old French the form *mes-*, modern French *mes-* or *mè-*. Examples of its use are 'mischance,' 'mischief,' 'misadventure.' Only by knowing the history of the word is it possible to decide which of the two prefixes is used in any particular word. Any good English dictionary will give this information.

7. *off*, 'from.' This is the same word as the English adverb and preposition, 'off.'

*off*set	*off*spring
*off*shoot	*off*shore

8. *out*, 'beyond,' 'out,' 'better.'

*out*worn	*out*general
*out*cry	*out*sail
*out*do	*out*run

a. The number of words compounded with *out* is very great. Often the meaning of the prefix is the same as that of the adverb, as shown above. Sometimes the meanings have become specialized, as in 'outcrop,' the appearance of a stratum of rock or of a vein of mineral at the surface, 'outfit,' a complete equipment of some sort. 'Outlaw' is from an Anglo-

Saxon word containing the Anglo-Saxon form of *out*. It meant 'one who has been deprived of the protection of the law,' that is 'one who is banished.' Later it came to mean 'one who breaks or defies the law.'

9. *over*, 'in excess,' 'too much,' or equivalent to some use of the adverb 'over.'

*over*charge	*over*spread	*over*power
*over*work	*over*throw	*over*rule

a. Many words with this prefix commonly employ a hyphen between the prefix and the word to which it is added. Examples are 'over-indulge,' 'over-ripe.'

10. *un-*. This prefix, which is perhaps the most frequently used of those derived from Anglo-Saxon, represents two uses:

(1) As employed with verbs it denotes action contrary to or reversing the act of the verb to which it is added. It is also used with nouns to form verbs having the meaning 'deprive of,' 'free from,' 'remove from.' In 'unloose,' it merely emphasizes the original idea.

*un*bind	*un*fasten
*un*cover	*un*make

(2) As employed with adjectives, adverbs, and sometimes with nouns it means *not*.

*un*happy	*un*paid
*un*kind	*un*sold
*un*rest	*un*reasonably

a. These two uses represent two different sources for the prefix, although it had only one form in Anglo-Saxon. The first use is related to the Greek *anti* (page 174). The second use is from the same source as Latin *in-* (page 169) and Greek *a-* (page 174).

11. *under*, 'beneath,' 'insufficiently.'

*under*mine	*under*rate
*under*line	*under*pay

12. *with*, 'against,' 'from.'

*with*stand *with*draw *with*hold

a. This use represents an old meaning, 'toward,' for the preposition *with*. The meaning of 'withdraw,' therefore, was originally 'to draw something toward one's self,' and so away from someone else. The meaning 'from' came to be associated with the prefix in this way, and 'withdraw' came to mean 'to take one's self from a place,' that is, to go away.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a prefix? Give examples of words containing prefixes.
2. What is a separable prefix?
3. What is an inseparable prefix?
4. Name the sources of the prefixes used in forming English words.

I. Latin Prefixes

5. In what two classes of English words are Latin prefixes found?
6. Illustrate the use of the preposition *a (ab, abs)* as a prefix. What is the meaning of this prefix?
7. What is the meaning of *ad* in compounds?
8. What are some of the forms which this prefix takes through assimilation?
9. Give illustrations of its use.
10. What is the meaning of *benefactor?*
11. What is a *bi-monthly* magazine?
12. What is the meaning of *circumnavigate?*
13. What is the meaning suggested by the derivation of *circumstance?*
14. What is the commonest meaning of the prefix *com-?* What are some of the forms it takes by assimilation?
15. What is the meaning of *contradict?*
16. What is the meaning of the phrase *pro and con?*
17. How did *de* differ originally from *a (ab)?*

18. Give some compounds of *de* and explain their meaning.
19. What are the three prefixes which mean *from?*
20. Find the meaning of the two elements of *exclude.*
21. What is the usual force of *dis-* in derivatives?
22. What form does *dis-* take in French?
23. What is the literal meaning of *extraordinary?*
24. Explain the differences between the two prefixes which appear as *in.*
25. What are the different forms taken by *in?*
26. What Anglo-Saxon prefix has the same meaning as the negative *in-?*
27. What is *interstate* commerce?
28. What is the difference between *intra* and *inter?* Give some illustrations of the use of *intra.*
29. What is the meaning of *non?* Illustrate its use in derivatives.
30. What are the different forms taken by the prefix *ob?* How have these different forms originated?
31. Give three derivatives of *per-* and explain their meaning.
32. What is the meaning of *pro-slavery?*
33. What was the original Latin form of the prefix *pre?*
34. Give some derivatives of *pre-* with a hyphen; some compounds without a hyphen.
35. What is the meaning of *post* in *postpone, postscript,* and *postgraduate?*
36. What is the origin of *post* in *postmaster* and similar words?
37. What is a *quadrilateral?* a *quadruped?*
38. What meaning *of re-* is seen in *reorganize?*
39. What were the two original meanings of *re-?*
40. What is *retrograde* motion?
41. Give three derivatives of *semi-* and define them.
42. Compare the meanings of *secede* and *recede.*
43. What are some of the forms which *sub* takes by assimilation?
44. What is the meaning of *subsoil?* of *subnormal?*
45. What is the meaning of *super-sensitive?*
46. What is the meaning of *tricolor?* To what flag is this adjective often applied?
47. What is the meaning of *transport?*
48. Give some derivatives of *trans-* of recent formation.

II. Greek Prefixes

49. What is the meaning of the Greek prefix *a-* or *an-?* To what Latin and English prefixes is it equivalent in meaning?

50. What is an *amphitheater?*

51. What is the meaning of *anachronism?* Give an illustration.

52. Give some compounds of *anti.* Compare its meaning with that of the Latin prefix *ante.*

53. What is the meaning of *apo* as a prefix?

54. Give illustrations of the use of *cata* as a prefix.

55. What is a *dissyllable?* a *diphthong?* What is the meaning of the first part of these words?

56. What is the meaning of *exodus?* From what language has it come?

57. What is the meaning of the prefix *hemi-?* Illustrate its use.

58. Distinguish between *hyper* and *hypo* in composition. Illustrate.

59. What is a *periscope?*

60. Give illustrations of derivatives with the Greek prefix *pro.*

61. What are the meanings of *syn-* in composition? To what Latin prefix does it correspond most nearly in meaning?

III. Anglo-Saxon and English Prefixes

62. Give examples of some common English words which are used as prefixes.

63. What are some derivatives of *a-?* Tell what you can of its origin.

64. Explain the use of *be-* as a prefix.

65. Which of the meanings given for *by-* is seen in *by-product?* in *by-path?*

66. What are some derivatives of *for-?* What can be said as to the force of this prefix?

67. Illustrate the independent use of the prefix *fore.*

68. How can the two prefixes with the form *mis-* be distinguished?

69. What is the origin of the prefix *mis-* which has come through the French?

70. Give some compounds of *off* and explain their meaning.

71. What is the meaning of *outcrop?* Explain the development of the meaning of *outlaw.*

72. What are the uses of *over* as a prefix?

73. Explain and illustrate the use of *un-* with verbs.

74. With what parts of speech is *un-* in its negative sense employed? To what prefix of Latin origin does it correspond in meaning?

75. Explain the development of the meaning of *withdraw.*

CHAPTER XVIII

SUFFIXES

A suffix is a word element standing at the end of a word or root. Thus, in 'conqueror' the syllable *-or* is a suffix.

We have seen that most prefixes are also used as separate words. Most suffixes are not used as separate words, but are employed only to give special meaning to words or parts of words to which they are added.

I. Latin Suffixes

Latin suffixes are sometimes greatly changed in form in the words which have come through French. Thus, the suffix which appeared in Latin as *-ānus* is found as *-ain* in the English word 'fountain.' In 'mountain,' however, the suffix represents *-aneus* of late Latin.

In the lists of suffixes which follow, the ending of the masculine nominative singular is given. But as has before been stated (page 115), the other cases, rather than the nominative, really represent the forms through which the modern French words and their English derivatives have come. Furthermore, the feminine ending instead of the masculine has given the form of the suffix as it appears in certain words.

These Latin suffixes are found in words which were brought into English or developed at different periods, and they differ in form accordingly. Thus we have 'human' and 'humane,' 'urban' and 'urbane.' The forms ending in *-ane* represent the spelling and the accent of the French words which were early introduced into English, while the forms in *-an* are derivatives of a more recent date.

The most important suffixes which have come from Latin are the following:

1. *-able, -ible, -ble.* The meaning of this suffix is 'able to be' or 'that may be' or 'fit to be.' In Latin it had the form *-bilis.* 'Credible' is derived from Latin *crēdibilis.* There was a Latin adjective *habilis,* meaning 'easy to have' or 'easy to handle,' derived from *habeō,* 'have,' and the suffix *-ilis.* From this word *habilis* our English adjective 'able' has come, and this word has influenced the use of the suffix *-able.* The *a* and *i* of *-able* and *-ible* have come from the use of *-bilis* in words which have *a* or *i* before the suffix. Thus, there was an adjective *amābilis* meaning 'lovable.' Since there were so many Latin words ending in *-ābilis,* the French came to use this ending instead of *-ible.* In English, however, *-ible* was kept in many words, and after some vowels *-ble* alone is found. New English words are sometimes formed by adding this suffix to words which are not of Latin origin. Such a word is 'unspeakable.'

Examples of the use of this suffix are:

culp*able,* 'fit to be blamed,' 'deserving to be blamed.'

cred*ible,* 'that may be believed.'

solu*ble,* 'that may be dissolved.'

no*ble,* originally, 'that which is fit or worthy to be known,' or perhaps 'that which is known,' 'famous.'

2. *-acious.* Adjectives meaning 'inclined to' or 'abounding in' are formed with this ending.

viv*acious,* 'abounding in life' (Latin *vīvus,* 'alive').

fall*acious,* 'inclined to deceive' (Latin *fallere,* 'to deceive').

a. There were many Latin adjectives ending in *-āx,* with the accusative in *-ācem,* such as *fallāx,* 'deceitful,' *capāx,* 'capable of holding.' The stem or main body of these adjectives really ended in *-āci-.* To this *-āci-* there was added the ending *-ous,* which will be explained later, making *-acious.* This ending is therefore a combination of two suffixes.

b. There is also a suffix *-aceous* which means 'having the quality of.' A great many scientific terms are made with this suffix, such as 'cretaceous,' 'of the nature of chalk,' a term applied to certain kinds of rock.

3. *-acy.* Nouns formed with this suffix denote a quality or state or condition.

fall*acy*, originally 'deceitfulness,' then 'a deceitful or misleading belief' (Latin *fallāx*, 'deceitful').

accur*acy*, 'the quality of being accurate' (Latin *accūrātus*, 'accurate').

a. This is a form of the suffix *-cy*, which will be given later.

4. *-age.* The number of nouns formed with this suffix is large, and it is not easy to give a complete definition of its use. Some of these nouns denote 'the condition or act of.' Some of them denote 'a collection of.'

vassal*age*, 'condition or state of being a vassal.'

pilgrim*age*, originally, 'the act of going on a journey.'

plum*age*, 'feathers' (Latin *plūma*, 'a feather').

a. In Latin the form was *-āticus*, which became *-age* in French.

5. *-al.* Both adjectives and nouns are formed with this suffix. With adjectives it gives the meaning 'relating to' or 'pertaining to' or 'connected with.' With nouns it gives the meaning 'the act of' or 'that which does.'

annu*al*, 'relating to the year,' 'yearly' (Latin *annus*, 'a year').

nation*al*, 'pertaining to the nation.

acquitt*al*, 'the act of acquitting.'

anim*al*, 'something having breath,' 'a living thing'(Latin *anima*, 'breath').

a. Some nouns with this ending were originally adjectives, and their meaning is closely related to the adjective meaning.

ann*als*, originally 'the account of events which happened each year.'

princip*al*, 'one who takes a leading place' (Latin *prīnceps*, 'foremost').

b. The Latin form of this suffix was *-ālis*, meaning 'belonging to' or 'connected with.'

6. *-an, -ane, -ain, -ian*. We have already seen (page 184) that the Latin ending *-ānus* became *-ain* in many words, and that it also appears as *-an*. In addition it has in some words the forms *-ane* and *-ian*.

a. Some adjectives in *-ane* have a related adjective in *-an*. Thus we have 'human' and 'humane,' 'urban' and 'urbane.' The adjective 'mundane' has no corresponding word in *-an*.

b. The form of the ending, *-ian*, appears in a great many words. Examples are 'barbarian,' 'historian,' 'comedian.' Adjectives and nouns from proper names are often formed with this ending. Such are 'Bostonian,' 'Parisian,' 'Spenserian.' The form *-ian* represents Latin *-iānus*, which was developed from the use of *-ānus* after the letter *i* (or more exactly, of *-nus* after *ia*). Thus from *Italia* the adjective was *Italiānus*. Later this ending was employed with words which did not have *i*. Thus *Christiānus* from *Christus*.

7. *-ance, -ancy*. These endings are used to form nouns which denote 'the state or quality of being.'

vigil*ance*, 'the state of being watchful' (*vigilāns*, accusative *vigilantem*, 'watchful').

inf*ancy*, 'the state of being an infant' (*īnfāns*, accusative *īnfantem*, 'an infant,' originally, 'speechless').

Nouns in *-ance* often denote 'the act of assistance,' 'the act of assisting.'

a. The two suffixes are formed from the Latin endings *-antia* and *-entia*. We shall see later that *-entia* sometimes takes another form in English, but in French the two endings took the same form, just as *-ābilis* and *-ibilis* both became

-*ancy* see page 185. The form -*ancy* was developed in English as a later form than -*ance*. It represents a development with learned words, while -*ance* represents the form developed in the spoken language. The English words ending in -*ance* were brought into English before the suffix -*ancy* came into use. But some words now ending in -*ancy* were changed from an earlier form in -*ance*. 'Constancy' had an older form, 'constance,' now used as a proper name.

8. -*ent*, -*ant*. Words with these endings may denote 'one who' or 'a thing which.' Sometimes they are nearly equivalent to our participles or participial adjectives in -*ing*.

tenant, 'one who holds, or occupies' (Latin *tenēre*, 'to hold').

servant, 'one who serves' Latin *servīre*, 'to serve')

confident, 'trusting' Latin *cōnfīdere*, 'to trust').

vigilant, 'watchful' Latin *vigilāre*, 'to watch').

These endings came from the endings of the Latin present participles -*ēns* (accusative -*ēntem*) and -*ōns* (accusative -*ōntem*). The two endings were reduced to the common form -*ant* in French, and this is the ending of the present participle of the French verb. In English many words which represent a Latin form in -*ēns* (-*ēntem*) were changed back to -*ent*. But this change was not made in all words, and so our English spelling is somewhat irregular.

9. -*ar*. Adjectives with this suffix mean 'of the kind of,' 'belonging to,' pertaining to.'

regular, 'pertaining to or according to rule' (*rēgula*, 'rule').

lunar, 'pertaining to the moon' *lūna*, 'the moon').

Nouns with this suffix mean 'a thing pertaining to, or connected with.'

collar, from Latin *collum*, 'neck.'

altar, from Latin *altus*, 'high.' (The altar was placed on an elevated spot.)

a. The Latin form was *-āris*. It is really the same suffix as *-ālis*, with a different spelling which developed after certain sounds.

10. *-ary*. The meaning of this suffix is about the same as the preceding, that is, 'connected with' or 'pertaining to.' It is used to form adjectives and nouns.

element*ary*, 'pertaining to elements.'

prim*ary*, 'pertaining to the first.'

Nouns with this ending usually mean 'one who' or 'a thing which belongs to or is engaged in.'

adver*sary*, 'one who opposes' (*adversus*, 'opposed to').

antiqu*ary*, 'one who is interested in antiquities.'

a. This ending usually represents the Latin *-ārius*. A few words, however, such as 'military' and 'salutary,' come from Latin words ending in *-āris*.

11. *-ate*. This suffix is used to form adjectives, nouns, and verbs.

Adjectives with this ending denote a condition or situation resulting from the act of the verb with which they are connected in derivation.

temper*ate*, from Latin *temperō*, 'restrain.'

orn*ate*, from Latin *ōrnō*, 'adorn.'

Some adjectives have been formed with this ending by analogy, although no related verb was in existence.

rose*ate*, 'like a rose in color.'

Nouns with this ending sometimes denote an office or the person performing it.

consul*ate*, 'the office of consul' (in modern use, 'the residence or office of a consul').

magistr*ate*, 'one who holds a magistracy.'

sen*ate*, 'an official body of the older men.'

a. A number of chemical terms formed with this ending denote salts formed by the action of an acid on a base. Examples are 'nitrate,' 'carbonate,' 'sulphate.'

Verbs formed with this ending mean the doing of an act involving the idea of the word from which they are derived. Often they are merely English equivalents of a Latin verb with slight changes in meaning. Such are 'create,' 'venerate,' 'fascinate.' Some verbs in *-ate* are formed from Latin past participles: 'create,' 'demonstrate' are of this sort. Others are formed on the analogy of these, although no corresponding Latin verb existed. Such are 'incapacitate,' 'vaccinate,' 'assassinate.'

12. *-cle, -cule.* Words formed with this ending denote a small object.

animal*cule*, 'a very small living creature.'
parti*cle*, 'a small part.'

a. The Latin ending was *-ulus.* It was used to form both adjectives and nouns. A few English words have been brought from Latin with the endings unchanged. Such are 'calculus,' 'curriculum,' and some words used as scientific terms. With some of these, as for example the two just given, the original force of the suffix has disappeared.

13. *-cy.* Words with this ending usually denote a quality or condition or office.

fluen*cy*, 'the condition of being fluent.'
secre*cy*, 'the condition of being secret.'
captain*cy*, 'the rank of captain.'
president*cy*, 'the office of president.'

a. The Latin form was *-tia* or *-cia.* The suffix is used chiefly in the forms *-acy, -ancy,* and *-ency.* In some words *-cy* represents a Greek ending which was taken into Latin. 'Policy' and 'prophecy' are of this class.

14. *-ee.* Words with this ending denote the person affected by the act which is implied. Among them are some legal terms such as the following:

pay*ee*, 'the person to whom payment is made.'
mortgag*ee*, 'the person to whom a mortgage is given.'

Other words are 'employee' and 'refugee,' the original sense being partly lost in the last of these.

a. This suffix comes from the French *-é*, which is the commonest ending of the past participle. The Latin participle which ended in *-ātum* (accusative) lost first the final *-um*, then the *t*, and later the *a* became *é*.

15. *-eer*, *-ier* (*-er*). The general force of this suffix is 'one who is concerned with, or associated with.'

auction*eer*, 'one who has charge of an auction.'
charioteer, 'one who drives a chariot.'
financ*ier*, 'one who is connected with financial affairs.'
carpent*er*, originally 'a maker of wagons' (*carpentum*, 'wagon').

a. The Latin form is *-ārius* or *-iārius*. There is also an Anglo-Saxon suffix *-er*, seen in 'leader,' 'miner,' and many other words. The form *-eer* is a late development of *-ier*.

16. *-ence*, *-ency*. These suffixes have the same meaning as *-ance* and *-ancy*. They form words denoting qualities, occasionally actions.

prud*ence*, 'the quality of being prudent.'
viol*ence*, 'the quality of being violent.'
exist*ence*, 'the state of existing.'
interfer*ence*, 'the act of interfering.'

a. We have already seen (page 187) that many words in *-ance* and *-ancy* represent Latin words in *-entia* which were changed in spelling because this entire group of words was made uniform in French. Some Latin words of this class, however, had dropped out of use, and were afterwards reintroduced from Latin. These latter words were spelled with *-ance* or *-ence* according to whether the Latin word ended in *-antia* or *-entia*. Words which were taken into English directly from Latin or which were formed in imitation of Latin words also kept the vowel *a* or *e* which appeared in the related Latin word.

17. *-ent.* The meaning of this suffix is the same as that of *-ant.* It forms adjectives denoting 'being,' or equivalent to our present participle or adjective, and nouns denoting 'one who.'

prud*ent*, originally 'foreseeing' (Latin *prōvideō*, 'foresee').

presid*ent*, 'presiding over,' 'one who presides over.'

18. *-ess.* Words with this ending denote females.

count*ess*, feminine of 'count.'

tigr*ess*, 'a female tiger.'

a. The corresponding Latin ending was *-issa*, which was derived from Greek. It did not come into use, however, until later than the time of the great Latin writers.

b. Another important ending for feminine nouns in the classical Latin period was *-trīx* (accusative *-trīcem*), which is seen in a few English words, such as 'executrix.' It appears in some French words as *-trice.*

19. *-ferous.* Adjectives formed with this ending mean 'producing.'

odori*ferous*, 'producing or having an odor.

voci*ferous*, 'producing voice,' 'loud.'

auri*ferous*, 'producing gold' (Latin *aurum*, 'gold').

a. This is a compound suffix, like *-acious* (page 185). It is composed of *-fer*, which is the root of the verb *ferre*, 'to bring or bear,' and the suffix *-ous.* It is used in many words which appear as scientific terms, such as 'carboniferous,' 'fossiliferous.'

20. *-fic.* Adjectives with this ending have the meaning 'making,' 'causing.'

paci*fic*, 'making peaceful.'

terri*fic*, 'causing terror.'

a. The Latin equivalent is *-ficus*, which is related to the verb *facere*, 'to make.'

21. *-fy, -ify.* Verbs with this ending mean 'make,' 'cause,' 'bring into a condition.'

stupe*fy*, 'to make stupid.' horri*fy*, 'to cause horror.'

a. The French ending from which *-fy* was formed was *-fier.* This was derived mainly from Latin *-ficāre*, but in a few words it comes from *-ficere.*

22. *-ic, -ical.* Adjectives with these endings mean 'of the nature of,' 'pertaining to.'

hero*ic*, 'of the nature of a hero,' 'like a hero.'

artist*ic*, 'pertaining to, or having the qualities of, art.'

histor*ical*, 'pertaining to history.'

a. Many nouns in *-ic* and *-ics* are used as names of arts or systems of knowledge. Such are 'music,' 'logic,' 'mathematics,' 'politics.'

b. The Latin form represented by *-ic* was *-icus.* Many words with this suffix were of Greek origin. *-ical* is a compound suffix made up of *-ic* and *-al.* In some cases, pairs of adjectives in *-ic* and *-ical* are formed from the same stem: 'historic,' 'historical,' 'philosophic,' 'philosophical.' The spelling *-ick* for *-ic* was used in earlier English. We find 'musick' and 'domestick' in old books.

23. *-ice.* Nouns with this suffix denote 'the quality or state of.'

avar*ice*, 'the quality of one who is avaricious.'

coward*ice*, 'the quality of one who is a coward.'

a. The Latin form is *-itia, -itius* or *-itium.* There are some words ending in *-ice* which do not properly belong to this class, although they may have been influenced by them. Such are 'accomplice,' 'crevice,' 'practice.'

24. *-id.* Adjectives with this suffix denote 'being in a condition' or 'possessing a quality.'

liqu*id*, 'in a condition to flow' (*liqueō*, 'flow').

ar*id*, 'in a condition of being dried up' (*āreō*, 'to dry up').

a. The Latin form is *-idus.*

25. *-ile, -il.* Words with these suffixes mean 'having the quality of,' 'connected with,' 'able to be.'

civ*il*, originally, 'of the character of a citizen' (Latin *cīvis*, 'citizen').

puer*ile*, 'of childish character' (Latin *puer*, 'boy').

juven*ile*, 'pertaining to youth (Latin *juvenis*, 'young').

doc*ile*, 'able to be taught' (Latin *doceō*, 'teach').

a. Latin form, *-īlis.* In some words which have come through French the ending is so combined with the rest of the word that it is not easily recognized. Thus, 'frail' is from *fragilis*; 'able' is from *habilis.*

26. *-ine.* When added to words denoting persons or things this suffix gives the meaning, 'pertaining to,' 'of the nature of.'

mar*ine*, 'pertaining to the sea' (Latin *mare*, 'the sea').

can*ine*, 'of a dog' (Latin *canis*, 'dog').

There are numerous nouns with this ending, such as 'doctrine,' 'medicine,' 'discipline.'

a. Latin form, *-īnus.* This suffix is seen in such words as 'nicotine,' 'strychnine,' and many chemical terms.

27. *-ion.* Nouns with this suffix denote 'the condition or act of.'

rebell*ion*, 'the act of rebelling.'

complet*ion*, 'the act of completing.'

In many words this ending has the form *-ation* or *-fication*, from combining with a previous syllable or syllables, as in 'relation' and 'gratification.'

a. The Latin form was *-iō* (accusative, *-iōnem*). It was commonly used after *t* or *s*, so that it usually appeared as *-tiō* or *-siō.*

28. *-ish.* No satisfactory definition can be given for the force of this suffix. It is used to form verbs with a wide range of meanings. The suffix *-ish* used with adjectives is from

a different source. Examples of verbs of this class are 'accomplish,' 'establish,' 'punish.'

a. The Latin form which is represented by this suffix is *-isc-*. It is found in many verbs ending in *-īscō*. In old French the form was *-is* or *-iss*, changing in English to *-ish*.

29. *-ite, -it.* Adjectives ending in *-ite* mean 'being in a certain condition.'

infin*ite*, 'not being limited.'

Some nouns are made with this suffix. Such are 'appetite' and 'favorite.' Verbs usually have the suffix in the form *-it*, but a few are found ending in *-ite*. Examples are 'exhibit,' 'deposit,' 'expedite,' 'unite.'

a. The Latin form appeared as *-itus*,[1] the ending of certain past participles, or as *-itō* in the present indicative of verbs

30. *-ity, -ty.* Nouns with this ending denote 'the state or quality of being.'

superior*ity*, 'the state of being superior.'

insan*ity*, 'the state of being insane.'

liber*ty*, 'the state of being free' (*līber*, 'free').

a. *-ty* is from the Latin *-tās* (accusative, *-tātem*). The *i* of *-ity* in some cases represents a vowel of the preceding part of the word to which *-tās* was added; in other cases it is merely developed by analogy.

31. *-ive.* Adjectives with this suffix express the idea of 'having a tendency to' or 'having the quality of.'

attract*ive*, 'having the tendency or power to attract.'

progress*ive*, 'having the tendency to go forward.'

Many of these adjectives have come to be used as nouns. Such are 'captive,' 'fugitive,' 'native.'

a. Latin form, *-īvus*. In French this suffix becomes *-if*, *-ive*. In Spanish and Italian it is *-ivo*.

[1] The Latin had two forms of this suffix, one with a long *i* (*-ītus*), the other with a short *i* (*-itus*).

32. *-ment.* Nouns with this suffix denote 'the state or act of,' or 'the means of.'

amaze*ment*, 'the state of being amazed.'

orna*ment*, 'the means of adorning' (*ōrnāre*, 'to adorn').

a. Latin form *-mentum.* This suffix is sometimes added to words not of Latin origin. An example is 'merriment.'

33. *-mony.* Nouns with this ending denote 'the state or quality of,' or 'that which is connected with.'

pars*imony*, 'the quality of being stingy' (*parsus*, 'stingy').

test*imony*, 'the acts of a witness' (*testis*, 'witness').

a. Latin form, *-mōnium* or *-mōnia.* This suffix is found only in words of Latin derivation.

34. *-tor*, *-sor* (*-or*). Nouns with these endings denote 'a person who does an act.'

vic*tor*, 'one who conquers' (Latin *vincere*, 'to conquer').

oppres*sor*, 'one who oppresses.'

don*or*, 'one who gives' (Latin *dōnō*, 'to make a present').

a. There is another group of words ending in *-or* which denote a condition.

pall*or*, 'a condition of being pale' (Latin *pallidus*, 'pale').

terr*or*, 'a condition of being frightened' (Latin *terreō*, 'to frighten').

These words represent Latin nouns with the same ending: *honor* (accusative *honōrem*), *labor* (accusative *labōrem*). Nouns in *-or* denoting an actor usually represent Latin nouns in *-tor* or *-sor*. Some nouns of this class which have come through Norman-French have changed in form so that the *t* of the original ending has disappeared. Thus, 'emperor' was *imperātor*, 'governor' was *gubernātor*. A few were formed in early French with the endings which had developed, and do not represent Latin words. Such are 'tailor,' 'warrior,' and some others. Nouns in *-tor* have been adopted in English more recently than the first class in *-or*. Occa-

sionally they refer to machinery instead of persons. Thus, 'motor,' 'tractor.'

35. *-ory.* Adjectives with this ending mean 'pertaining or relating to.'

auditory, 'pertaining to hearing' (*audīre*, 'to hear').

compulsory, 'relating to compulsion.'

Nouns with this ending often denote 'a place where.'

dormitory, 'a place to sleep' (*dormīre*, 'to sleep').

observatory, 'a place from which to make astronomical observations.'

armory, 'a place for arms.'

a. Latin form *-ōrius*, usually the neuter form, *-ōrium*. Some nouns have kept the Latin ending. An example is 'auditorium.'

36. *-ose, -ous.* Adjectives with this ending mean 'full of' or 'abounding in.'

bellicose, 'full of a spirit of war' (Latin *bellum*, 'war').

envious, 'full of envy.'

The form in *-ous* is the more frequently used.

a. Latin form, *-ōsus*. There were many Latin adjectives with this ending. 'Perilous' and 'glorious' represent derivations from Latin through French. Some words were formed in French without having Latin equivalents and then taken into English. Such are 'dangerous' and 'mountainous.' Many other words of this class have been formed in English. Such are 'poisonous,' 'wondrous.'

37. *-tude.* Nouns with this suffix denote the 'state or quality of being.'

magnitude, 'the quality of being large' (*magnus*, 'large').

The words 'latitude' and 'longitude' have come to be used with special meanings, but their derivation is the same as that of other words of this class.

a. Latin form, *-tūdō* (accusative *-tūdinem*). Nouns with this ending were commonly formed from adjectives.

38. *-ule.* Nouns formed with this ending are called *diminutives,* that is, they denote small objects. The ending is the same as that seen in *-cle* and *-cule.*

glob*ule,* 'a very small globe.'

a. Latin form, *-ulus.* See *-cule.*

39. *-ulent.* Adjectives with this ending mean 'full of' or 'of the character of.'

fraud*ulent,* 'of the character of fraud.'

turb*ulent,* 'full of confusion' (Latin *turba,* 'confusion,' 'disorder').

a. The Latin form is *-ulentus.* The English adjectives given above are derived directly from Latin adjectives in *-ulentus.*

40. *-ure.* Nouns with this ending denote the performing of an act or the result of an act.

apert*ure,* 'an opening' (Latin *aperīre,* participle, *apertus,* 'to open').

junct*ure,* 'a joining' (Latin *jungere,* participle, *jūnctus,* 'to join').

a. Latin form, *-ūra.* Its use in Latin is very common. It is employed with the stem of the past participle. The French form is spelled the same as the English.

II. Greek Suffixes

The number of suffixes of Greek origin appearing in English is not large. Most of these were taken from Greek into Latin, and the English use is derived from the Latin. For example *-ic,* which has been given among the Latin suffixes because of its extensive use in Latin, is from Greek, as has been pointed out.

The most important suffixes of Greek origin are the following:

1. *-ac,* 'pertaining to,' 'affected by.'

cardi*ac,* 'pertaining to the heart' (Greek *kardia,* 'heart').

mani*ac*, 'one affected by madness' (Greek *mania*, 'madness').

2. *-et*, *-ete*, 'one who.'

po*et*, athl*ete*.

The words given above do not readily suggest to us the original force of the suffix, because of the changes which have taken place in their meaning. 'Poet' is from a Greek word which means 'to make.' The poet was one skilled in making rhythmic composition. The Greek noun from the verb above referred to took on the same meaning as the derived English word, and was taken into Latin in that sense. Our English word represents this Latin derivative. 'Athlete' is from a Greek verb meaning 'to struggle for a prize.' Then from the idea of contesting for a prize in games requiring physical strength, the meaning came to be 'one who has the strength and skill needed for such contests.'

3. *-ize*, *-ise*. Verbs with this ending commonly mean 'to make' or 'to have a particular feeling.' 'Dramatize' is to make a narrative or story into drama. 'Sympathize' is to have a feeling of sympathy.

a. Words are often formed with this ending from proper names. Examples are 'Christianize,' 'Anglicize,' 'Americanize.' Some chemical terms, such as 'oxidize,' are formed with this ending.

4. *-ism*. Nouns with this suffix denote typical conduct or condition, or a system or principle. Sometimes they designate a peculiarity in manner or language.

hero*ism*	conserva*tism*
barba*rism*	republican*ism*

5. *-ist*, 'one who does some act, or holds some belief, or is concerned with some subject,' or 'a player on some instrument.'

antagon*ist*	dent*ist*	balloon*ist*
fatal*ist*	violin*ist*	cornet*ist*

III. Anglo-Saxon Suffixes

Some Anglo-Saxon suffixes are used with words that we do not commonly think of as compounds, because we do not recognize the word element to which they are added apart from the compound. Such are 'twinkle,' in which the suffix *-le* is from an ending used with the Anglo-Saxon verb, and 'worship,' in which the modern meaning does not show the force of the suffix *-ship*. We may disregard a number of these suffixes in this connection, either because they are not commonly felt as a separate word element, or because they are employed with a rather small number of words. Some of the more important suffixes of Anglo-Saxon origin are the following:

1. *-ard*. Nouns formed with this suffix, when denoting persons, sometimes imply censure. No definite meaning can be assigned to its use in the nouns denoting things.

drunk*ard*	stand*ard*
slugg*ard*	plac*ard*
wiz*ard*	

a. 'sluggard' is from a word *slug*, meaning 'be slothful,' which has dropped out of use.

2. *-dom*, 'dominion,' 'condition,' 'quality.'

king*dom*	free*dom*
duke*dom*	wis*dom*

a. This ending is connected in derivation with the word 'do,' although the relation in meaning is not very easily seen. It has no connection with Latin *dominus*, so far as its origin is concerned.

3. *-en*, 'made of,' 'to make.'

wood*en*	gold*en*	soft*en*
wool*en*	short*en*	

a. This has no relation to the plural ending *-en*, which has been kept in a few words, such as 'children,' 'oxen,' 'brethren.'

4. *-er*, *-yer*, 'one who,' 'a thing which,' 'a person connected with.'

driv*er*	scrap*er*
build*er*	geograph*er*
pok*er*	law*yer*

a. With names of cities this ending is sometimes used to mean 'an inhabitant of.'

New York*er*
London*er*
Pittsburgh*er*

5. *-ful*, (1) 'full of,' 'having the quality of.'

peace*ful*	art*ful*
revenge*ful*	master*ful*

(2) 'the amount required to fill.'

hand*ful*	cup*ful*
box*ful*	house*ful*

6. *-hood*, 'condition,' 'quality.'

man*hood*	knight*hood*
child*hood*	priest*hood*

a. 'Brotherhood' is sometimes used as a collective noun denoting a group of persons united in close relations.

7. *-ish*, 'like,' 'having the qualities of,' 'somewhat,' or referring to nationality.

child*ish*	brown*ish*
heathen*ish*	Dan*ish*
gray*ish*	Brit*ish*

a. This is not the same ending as that which is seen in such verbs as 'cherish,' 'admonish' (page 194).

8. *-le* (*-el*). This suffix is used with nouns, adjectives, and verbs. Commonly the element of the word to which the suffix was added was an Anglo-Saxon word which is not

readily seen from modern English. Examples of derivatives with *-le* are as follows:

thimb*le*	brid*le*
hand*le*	bund*le*

9. *-less*, 'without,' 'not able to be.'

home*less*	resist*less*
help*less*	tire*less*
number*less*	

10. *-let*. Nouns with this ending usually denote a small object.

book*let*
stream*let*

11. *-ly*, 'having the qualities of,' or used to form adverbs denoting manner.

kind*ly*	fierce*ly*
man*ly*	earnest*ly*

a. This suffix is not derived from 'like,' but comes from an Anglo-Saxon suffix, or rather from two suffixes, the form used with adjectives being originally different from that used with adverbs.

12. *-ness*, 'the state or condition of being.'

This suffix is used to form nouns from adjectives.

bitter*ness*	hopeless*ness*
kind*ness*	unprepared*ness*

a. Occasionally phrases with adjective use have this ending added to express the corresponding noun idea.

'up-to-date-ness.'

13. *-ship*, 'the state, rank, office, profession of.'

apprentice*ship*	consul*ship*
lords*hip*	scholar*ship*

The words 'hardship' and 'worship' (by origin, 'worthship') illustrate its use in forming nouns from adjectives. In modern usage, however, nouns are formed with this suffix, only from nouns.

14. *-some*, 'productive of,' 'adapted to,' 'apt to.'

tire*some*	quarrel*some*
weari*some*	win*some*

This suffix is also found in a few poetic or uncommon words, such as 'gladsome,' 'blithesome.'

15. *-ster*, 'one who,' referring to a person who does something with skill or as an occupation.

team*ster*	pun*ster*
game*ster*	trick*ster*

a. Sometimes a shade of contempt is expressed, as in 'rimester,' and 'shyster' (a dishonest lawyer).

b. Originally this ending was feminine. 'Spinster' at first meant 'a woman who spins.' The proper name Webster meant originally 'a woman who weaves.' The masculine form was *webbe*, from which another proper name has come.

16. *-ward*, 'in the direction of.' Numerous words with this suffix are found, and new ones are readily formed.

east*ward*	shore*ward*	home*ward*
south*ward*	sky*ward*	back*ward*

a. 'Toward,' 'towards,' are formed with this suffix.

17. *-y*, 'full of,' 'having the character of.' Also used with proper names, sometimes with other words, to denote familiarity or affection. In this use it often appears as *-ie*.

thorn*y*	milk*y*	ic*y*
ston*y*	Johnn*y*	dogg*ie*

a. The word 'baby' has almost entirely replaced 'babe,' from which it was derived with this suffix.

QUESTIONS

I. Latin Suffixes

1. What is a suffix?
2. What difference is there between prefixes and suffixes in regard to their use as independent words?
3. Through what intervening language have most English suffixes of Latin origin come? What has been the general result of this course of development?

4. What is the meaning of the suffix *-able (-ible, -ble)?*
5. What is the origin of the English adjective *able?*
6. Give examples which illustrate the different forms of this suffix.
7. What is the meaning of *fallacious?* What are some other common words with the same suffix?
8. How was the suffix *-acious* formed?
9. What is the meaning of *veracious?* Find out what you can about its derivation.
10. Give examples of the use of the suffix *-age.* Find from a dictionary the derivation of *savage.*
11. With what parts of speech is the suffix *-al* found? Give examples.
12. What are the different forms of the suffix which have developed from *-anus?*
13. Distinguish between the meanings of *human* and *humane.*
14. Give examples of the use of *-ian* with proper names.
15. How are the suffixes *-ance, -ancy* used?
16. What were the Latin forms from which *-ance, -ancy* developed?
17. What meanings are indicated by the suffixes *-ant* and *-ent?*
18. What is the origin of the suffixes *-ant* and *-ent?*
19. Give examples of the use of the suffixes *-ar* and *-ary.* From what Latin suffixes have they come?
20. With what parts of speech is the suffix *-ate* found? Give examples of each.
21. Explain the origin of verbs with this ending.
22. Give examples of scientific terms with this ending.
23. What class of objects is denoted by nouns ending in *-cle* and *-cule?*
24. What is the origin of the suffix *-cy?* In what forms does it usually appear?
25. Explain the origin of the suffix *-ee* and illustrate its use.
26. What is the force of the suffix *-eer, -ier, -er?* What is the source of the suffix seen in *miner?*
27. To what other suffixes are *-ence* and *-ency* equivalent in meaning? Explain the relation between these two sets of suffixes.
28. Explain the use of the suffix *-ent.*
29. With what class of words is the suffix *-ess* found? Give examples in addition to those given in the text.

30. What is meant by *auriferous rock?*

31. What part of speech may be formed with the suffix *-fic?*

32. Illustrate the use of the suffix *-fy.*

33. What is the meaning of adjectives in *-ic* or *-ical?* Illustrate the use of these endings to form pairs of words of related or identical meanings.

34. Give some examples of nouns formed with the suffix *-ic* or *-ics.*

35. What is denoted by nouns ending in the suffix *-ice?*

36. With what Latin verb is the adjective *arid* connected in derivation?

37. What is the meaning of *juvenile?* of *civil?*

38. Give examples of words with the suffix *-inc.*

39. What part of speech may be formed with the suffix *-ion?* In what forms does it often appear?

40. Give examples of verbs with the suffix *-ish.* What is said of the meanings of this class of verbs?

41. What parts of speech are formed with the suffixes *-it* and *-ite?*

42. What is denoted by nouns with the suffix *-ty, -ity?* What is the Latin form of this suffix?

43. Give examples of adjectives with the suffix *-ive* and define the examples.

44. What forms does this suffix take in French? in Spanish?

45. Illustrate the use of the suffix *-ment.*

46. What is the meaning of *acrimony?* Find out what you can of its derivation.

47. What is denoted by nouns with the suffix *-tor* or *-sor?* Find other examples than those given in the book.

48. What different classes of nouns are found with the ending *-or?*

49. What is an *observatory?* Give other nouns with the same suffix.

50. What is denoted by adjectives with the suffix *-ose* or *-ous?*

51. Give examples of nouns with the suffix *-tude* and define the examples.

52. With what class of words is the suffix *-ule* found? What other forms of the same suffix have previously been seen?

53. What is the meaning of *fraudulent?*

54. Give examples of the use of the suffix *-ure?*

II. Greek Suffixes

55. Through what language have most Greek suffixes which appear in English been derived?

56. Illustrate the use of the suffix *-ac*.

57. Explain the original force of the words from which *poet* and *athlete* have come.

58. What are some examples of the use of the suffix *-ize?*

59. Illustrate the use of the suffixes *-ism* and *-ist*.

III. Anglo-Saxon Suffixes

60. What is the original meaning of *-ard?* Give examples of its use.

61. Give other words with the same suffix as that seen in *kingdom*.

62. Give three uses of the suffix *-en* and illustrate each.

63. What does the suffix *-er (-yer)* denote?

64. What meanings of *-ful* are shown in *peaceful* and *masterful?* in *handful?*

65. What is a *brotherhood?* Does this word illustrate the commonest use of the suffix *-hood?*

66. With what part of speech is *-ish* used? What are its meanings?

67. Give examples of the use of *-less* and explain their meaning.

68. What is the meaning of *booklet?*

69. What are the uses of *-ly?* What is said of the origin of this suffix?

70. To what part of speech is *-ness* added? What part of speech is formed by its use?

71. Explain the use of the suffix in *apprenticeship, lordship, scholarship*.

72. Define *tiresome* and *quarrelsome* in such a way as to show the force of the suffix.

73. Give examples of words with the suffix *-ster*.

74. What is the meaning of the suffix *-ward?* Illustrate its use.

75. What is the meaning of the suffix in *thorny* and *icy?* What other use does this suffix have? What other spelling does it sometimes have?

CHAPTER XIX

HOMONYMS

We have seen that the word 'board' has meanings which are very different, but which came from the same source. There are, however, a number of pairs of words which are pronounced alike, but which are entirely different not only in meaning but also in origin. Such words are called *homonyms*. For example the word 'arm,' meaning a part of the body, is of Germanic origin, while 'arm,' the verb meaning to provide one with weapons, comes from a Latin verb, *armō*, with the same meaning. 'Ball,' a round object, is an old English word from a Teutonic source; 'ball,' meaning a social gathering for dancing, is from a late Latin word, *ballāre*, 'to dance.' 'Base,' the support on which an object stands, is from a Greek word with the same meaning as the English. 'Base,' meaning of low character or rank, is from Late Latin *bassus*, 'low.'

Words like 'see' and 'sea,' here' and 'hear,' 'to,' 'too' and 'two,' which are pronounced alike but spelled differently are also called homonyms.

Some of the most important homonyms with their meanings are given in the following list:

bat, a flying creature
bat, a stick used in playing ball
bound, set limits to
bound, bounce
box, a receptacle made of wood or other firm material
box, a blow on the ear
date, a kind of fruit
date, the time of an occurrence
ear, that by which we hear
ear, a head of grain

file, a steel tool
file, a row of men
grate, a frame of metal bars
grate, to rub
gum, the flesh in which the teeth are fixed
gum, sticky material from trees or shrubs
hail, frozen rain
hail, a greeting
junk, discarded material of small use
junk, a Chinese ship
league, an agreement
league, a measure of distance
leave, permission
leave, to allow to remain
light, the opposite of darkness
light, of small weight
lock, a tress of hair
lock, a fastening
loom, a machine for weaving
loom, to appear in view
March, the third month
march, to walk, as an army
nag, a small horse
nag, to find fault
pen, an enclosure
pen, an instrument for writing
pine, a tree
pine, to long eagerly for
prize, a reward
prize, ship or property captured at sea
race, a contest in speed
race, a group of persons or animals of common stock
racket, a noise
racket, an article used in playing tennis

rail, a bar of wood or metal
rail, to use abusive language
rent, money received for the use of property
rent, a hole torn in a garment
rest, to be quiet
rest, the remainder
rime, agreement in sound
rime, hoar frost
ring, a circular metal band
ring, to give forth a clear sound
sole, the lower surface of the foot
sole, only
sound, that which is heard
sound, healthy
swallow, to take into the stomach through the throat
swallow, a kind of bird
tattoo, a rapid beating of a drum
tattoo, to mark the skin with coloring matter by pricking
temple, a sacred building
temple, the side of the head

There are a great many other pairs of English homonyms in addition to those which have been given. Sometimes both words of a pair of homonyms came from the same language, but from different words. Thus 'sole,' the bottom of the foot, comes from Latin *solea*, meaning a slipper or the sole of a shoe, while 'sole' meaning only comes from Latin *sōlus*, meaning alone. It is often necessary to consult a good dictionary in order to make certain whether two meanings for a word are the result of changes in its use or whether there are really two different words.

QUESTIONS

1. What are homonyms?
2. Illustrate by pairs of words the two types of homonyms.

3. From a dictionary find out the meaning of *synonym*. Illustrate by examples.

4. From a dictionary find the origin of five pairs of homonyms given in the list.

5. From what language do we get *March*, the name of a month? *March*, a verb?

6. Explain the origin of *sole*, 'the bottom of the foot,' and *sole*, 'alone.'

PRONUNCIATION OF FOREIGN WORDS

ABBREVIATIONS

G = Greek; Ger. = German; F = French; I = Italian; L = Latin; S = Spanish

KEY TO PRONUNCIATION

ā, as in fāde
ä, as in fäther
a, as in lack
ē, as in mē
e, as in met
ī, as in pīne
i, as in pin
ō, as in sō
ŏ, shorter than ō, approximating the sound of o in collect
u, as in rut
û, approximating somewhat the sound of u in fur, but formed nearer the front of the mouth
ü, about equivalent to ē made with the lips in position for o͞o
o͞o, as in boot
o͝o, as in foot
N, approximating ng, but pronounced quickly

accūrātus, L., ăk-ko͞o-rä′to͝os
adversus, L., ăd-wer′so͝os
aequālis, L., ī-kwä′lis
aequālitātem, ī-kwäl-i-tä′tem
aequus, L., ī′kwo͝os
agger, L., äg′ger
agua, S., ä′gwä
all'arme, I., äl-är′mā
all'erta, I., äl-er′tā
altus L., äl′to͝os
amāre, L., ă-mä′re
ambīre, L., ăm-bē′re
anima, L., än′i-mä
animus, L., än′i-mo͝os
annus, L., än′no͝os
aperīre, L., ä-per-ē′re
apertus, ä-per′to͝os
aqua, L., ä′kwä
arbor, L., är′bŏr
arboris, är′bŏr-is
arborī, är′bŏr-ē
arborem, är′bŏr-em
arbore, är′bŏr-e
arbre, F., arbr
āreō, L., ä′re-ō
armada, S., är-mä′dä
armāta, L., är-mä′ta
audīre, L., ow-dē′re
aurum, L., ow′ro͝om
avant, F., a-väN′
avanti, I., ä-vän′tē
Avril, F., a-vrēl′

bellum, L., bel′lo͝om
bene, L., ben′-e
bien, F., byaN
biennium, L., bi-en′ni-o͝om
bon, F., bôN
bonitātem, L., bô-ni-tä′tem
bonté, F., bôN-tā′
bueno, S., bwā′nō
buono, I., bwô′nō

caballo, S., cä-bäl′yō
caballus, L., cä-bäl′lo͝os
Caesaris, L., Kī′sär-is
campus, L., käm′po͝os

candidātus, L., kän-di-dā′tŏŏs
candida, L., kän′di-dä
canis, L., kän′is
capāx, L., kä′päx
capitālis, L., kä-pi-tä′lis
  capitāle, kä-pi-tä′le
Capitōlium, L., Kä-pi-tō′li-ŏŏm
captīvus, L., käp-tē′wŏŏs
caput, L., kä′pŏŏt
carpentum, L., kär-pen′tŏŏm
carricāre. L., kär-ri-kä′re
castra, L., käs′trä
cattivo, I., kät-tē′vō
cavallo, I., kä-väl′lō
cavea, L., kä′we-ä
champ, F., shäN
cheval, F., shval
Christiānus, L., kris-ti-ä′nŏŏs
cité, F., sē-tā′
ciudad, S., thē-ŏŏ-däd′
cīvis, L., kē′wis
cīvitātem, L., kē-wi-tä′tem
collum, L., kŏl′lŏŏm
colōnia, L., kŏ-lō′ni-ä
colōrātus, L., kŏ-lō-rä′tŏŏs
commandāre, L., kŏm-män-dä′re
cōnfīdere, L., kōn-fē′de-re
cōnfiteor, L. kōn-fit′e-ŏr
congressus, L., kŏn-gres′sŏŏs
covre, F., kŏvr
crēdibilis, L., krā-dib′i-lis
cucumis, L., kŏŏ′kŏŏ-mis
  cucumerem, kŏŏ-kŏŏ′me-rem

dēbitum, L., dā′bi-tŏŏm
dēlīrāre, L., dā-lē-rä′re
dent de lion, F., däN-duh-lē-ŏN′
diamante, S., I., dē-ä-män′te
dictador, S., dik-tä-dōr′
dictātor, L., dik-tä′tŏr
  dictātōrem, dik-tä-tō′rem
digitus, L., dig′i-tŏŏs
diurnālis, L., di-ŏŏr-nä′lis
diurnus, L., di-ŏŏr′nŏŏs
docteur, F., dŏk-tûr′
doctōrem, L., dŏk-tō′rem
dolce, I., dŏl′chā
domus, L., dŏ′mŏŏs
dormīre, L., dŏr-mē′re
douce, F., dōōs
  doux, dōō
dubitō, L., dŏŏ′bi-tō
dūcō, L., dōō′kō
dulcis, L., dŏŏl′kis

école, F., ā-kol′
égalité, F., ā-gal-i-tā′
estipendio, S., es-tē-pen′dē-ō
établir, F., ā-tab-lēr′
état, F., a-ta′
exaggerāre, L., ex-äg-ger-är′e

faba, L., fä′bä
facilidad, S., fä-thil-i-däd′
facilitātem, L., fä-kil-i-tä′tem
facilité, F., fa-sē-lē-tā′
fallāx, L., fäl′läx
fallere, L., fäl′le-re
falsus, L., fäl′sŏŏs
fateor, L., fä′te-ŏr
faux, F., fō
fave, I., fä′vā
fé, S., fāy
feu, F., fû
fidēs, L., fi′dās
focus, L., fō′kŏŏs
foi, F., fwä
fontānus, F., fŏn-tä′nŏŏs
forme, F., form
fragilis, L., frä′gil-is
fraile, F., frāle
fuego, S., fwā′gŏ
fuoco, I., fwŏ′kō

geole, F., jāle
glyphō, G., glüf′ō
graphō, G., grä′fō
gravedad, S., grä-vā-däd′
gravité, F., gra-vē-tā′
gravitātem, L., grä-wi-tä′tem
grotta, I., grot′tä
gubernātor, L., gōō-ber-nä′tōr

habilis, L., hä′bi-lis
hieros, G., hē-e-rŏs′
historia, L., his-tō′ri-ä
honor, L., hŏ′nŏr
honōrem, hŏ-nō′rem
hospitālis, L., hŏs-pi-tä′lis

ille, L., il′le
infāns, L., ēn′fāns
infantem, ēn-fān′tem
imperātor, L., im-per-ä′tŏr
imperātōrem, im-per-ä-tō′rem
inremeābilis, L., in-re-me-ä′bi-lis
Italia, L., I-tä′li-ä
Italiānus, L., I-tä-li-ä′nŏŏs

Jerez, S., Hā-rāth′
Jerjes, S., Hār′hās
jeu, F., zhû
Joachimsthaler, Ger., Yo′a-kims-tä-ler
jocus, L., yŏ′kŏŏs
jour, F., zhōōr
jungere, L., yŏŏng′ge-re
jūnctus, yōōnk′tŏŏs
juvenis, L., yŏŏ′we-nis

kardia, G., kär′di-ä

labor, L., lä′bŏr
labōrem, lä-bō′rem
lagarto, S., lä-gär′tō
le, F., luh
levāns, L., le′wäns
levantem, le-wän′tem
levāre, L., le-wä′re
lēx, L., lāx (= Eng. lakes)
lēgem, lā′gem
liber, L., lib′er
liber, L., lē′ber
libertās, L., lē-ber′täs
libertātem, lē-ber-tä′tem
liberté, F., lē-ber-tā′
liqueō, L., lik′we-ō
lira, L., lē′rä
livre, F., lēvr
loi, F., lwä
lūna, L., lōō′nä

mandāre, L., män-dä′re
mania, G., mä′ni-ä
manus, L., mä′nŏŏs
mar, S., mär
mare, I., mä′re
mare, L., mä′re
mel, L., mel
mer, F., mer
meridiem, L., me-rē′di-em
miel, F., myel
mina, L., mī′nä
mōbile, L., mō′bi-le
mōbilem, mō′bi-lem
mōns, L., mōns
mont, F., mŏN
montānus, L., mŏn-tä′nŏŏs

neuf, F., nûf
neuve, F., nûv
nombre, F., nŏNbr
nombre, S., nōm′brā
nōmen, L., nō′men
novem, L., nŏ′wem
nuevo, S., nwā′vō
nuovo, I., nwō′vō

ōrātor, L., ō-rä′tôr
  ōrātōrem, ō-rä-tō′rem
oriēns, L., ô′ri-ānz
  orientem, ô-ri-en′tem
orior, L., ô′ri-ôr
ōrnāre, L., ōr-nä′re
ōrnō, L., ōr′nō

paese, I., pä-ā′zā
pagānus, L., pä-gä′nŏŏs
pagēnsis, L., pä-gān′sis
pagus, L., pä′gŏŏs
palātia, L., pä-lä′ti-ä
Palātium, L., pä-lä′ti-ŏŏm
pallidus, L., päl′li-dŏŏs
parsus, L., pär′sŏŏs
pateō, L., pä′te-ō
pater, L., pä′ter
pays, F., pī
Pergamēna, L., per-gä-mā′nä
placeō, L., plä′ke-ō
plaisir, F., plā-zēr′
plūma, L., plōō′mä
pōnō, L., pō′nō
positus, L., pŏs′i-tŏŏs
porcus, L., pôr′cŏŏs
porte, F., pôrt
porta, L., pôr′tä
portus, L., pôr′tŏŏs
prīnceps, L., prēn′keps
probāre, L., prô-bä′re
prōvideō, L., prō-wid′e-ō
puella, L., pŏŏ-el′lä
  puellae, pŏŏ-el′lī
  puellam, pŏŏ-el′läm
  puellā, pŏŏ-el′lä
  puellārum, pŏŏ-el-lä′rum
  puellīs, pŏŏ-el′lēs
  puellās, pŏŏ-el′läs
puer, L., pŏŏ′er

quattuor, L., kwät′tŏŏ-ôr

redūcō, L., re-dōō′kō
regere, L., reg′e-re
rēgīna, L., ra-gē′nä
rēgnum, L., rāg′nŏŏm
rēgula, L., rā′gŏŏ-la
rēx, L., rāx (= Eng. rakes)
  rēgem, rā′gem
roi, F., rwä
rosa, L., rô′sa

salvāre, L., säl-wä′re
sānctus, L., sänk′tŏŏs
sauver, F., sō-vā′
schola, L., skô′lä
science, F., sē-äNs′
scuola, I., skwō′lä
sēcūrus, L., sā-kōō′rŏŏs
servīre, L., ser-wē′re
simulāre, L., sim-ŏŏ-lä′re
sōl, L., sōl
  sōlem, sō′lem
sonus, L., sô′nŏŏs
spasimo, I., spä′zē-mō
spīca, L., spē′kä
spīna, L., spē′nä
splendide, F., splaN-dēd′
stabilīre, L., stä-bil-ē′re
statue, F., sta-tü′
status, L., stä′tŏŏs
stīpendium, L., stē-pen′di-ŏŏm

tabula, L., tä′bŏŏ-lä
tele, G., tā′lā
tenēre, L., ten-ā′re
temperō, L., tem′per-ō
terreō, L., ter′re-ō
testis, L., tes′tis
thaler, Ger., tä′ler

toreador, S., tō-re-ä-dōr′
turba, L., to͝or′bä

vigilāns, L., wig′i-läns
vigilantem, wig-i-län′tem
vigilāre, L., wig-i-lä′re

vincere, L., win′ke-re
vivus, L., wē′wo͝os
vulgus, L., wo͝ol′go͝os

Xeres, S., Hā′rās